

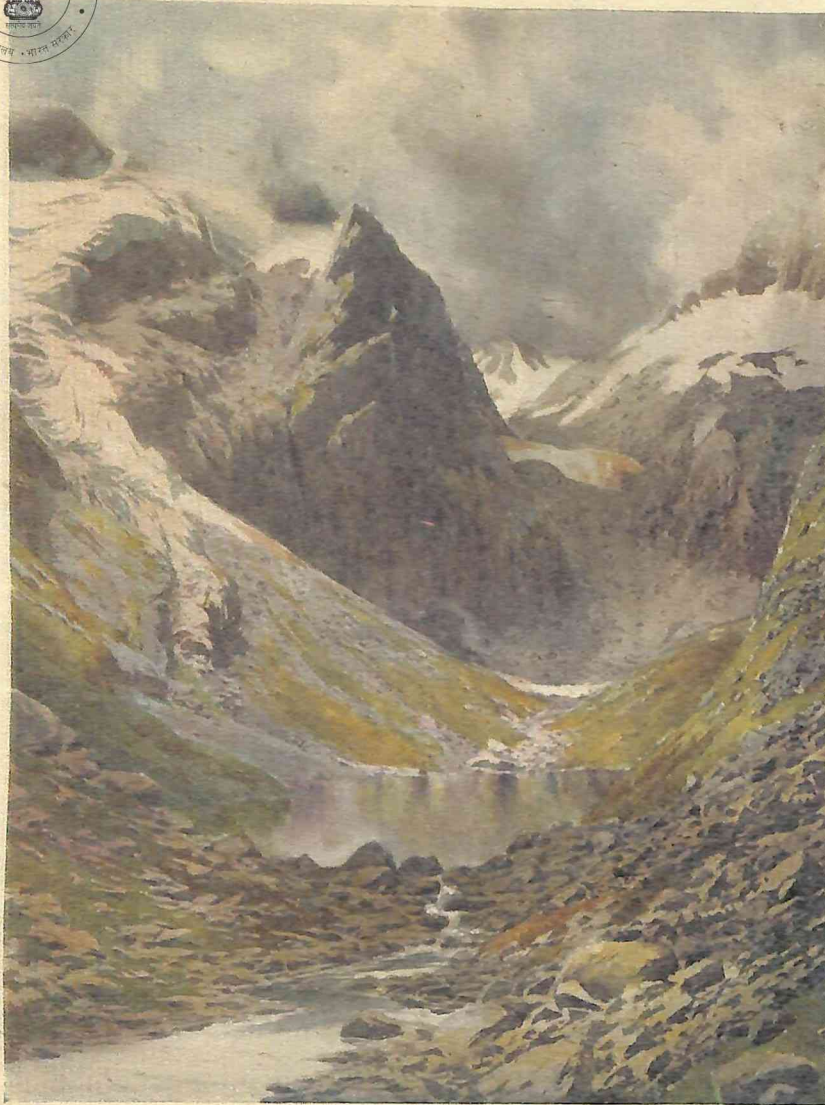


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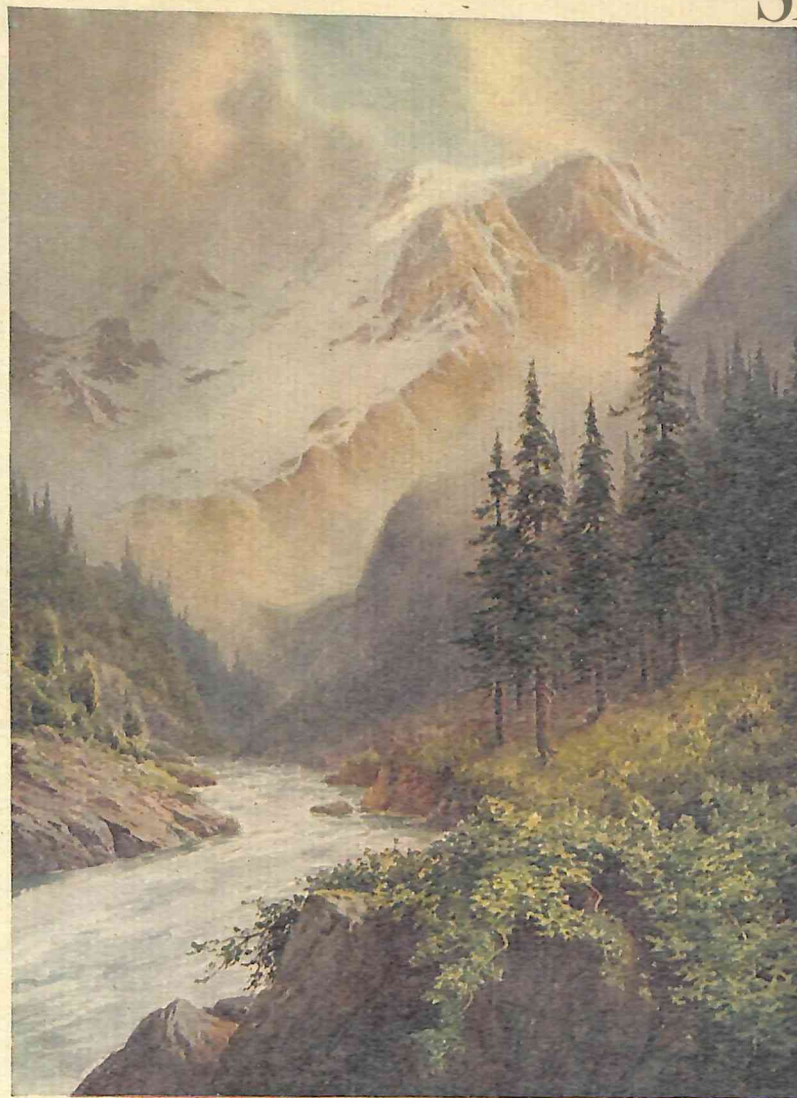
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# INDIA IN PICTURES



No. 1. — AMONG THE HIMALAYAS.

This shows a view in the valley of the Lidar to the east of Srinagar in Kashmir. Notice the glacier on the left side of the picture. It gives rise to the river which flows out of the small lake.



No. 2. A SCENE ON THE UPPER INDUS.

The Indus (see page 8) rises in Tibet on the north side of the Himalayan wall. It flows at first in a north-westerly direction and runs right across Kashmir before it turns south-westward and leaves the mountains. Notice (a) the pine-trees; (b) the rainy mist swathing the mountains (see p. 17).





# INDIA IN PICTURES<sup>CSL</sup>

3

BY

H. CLIVE BARNARD, M.A., B.Litt.

EXAMINER IN GEOGRAPHY TO THE COLLEGE OF PRECEPTORS AND  
ASSISTANT EXAMINER FOR THE LONDON UNIVERSITY MATRICULATION

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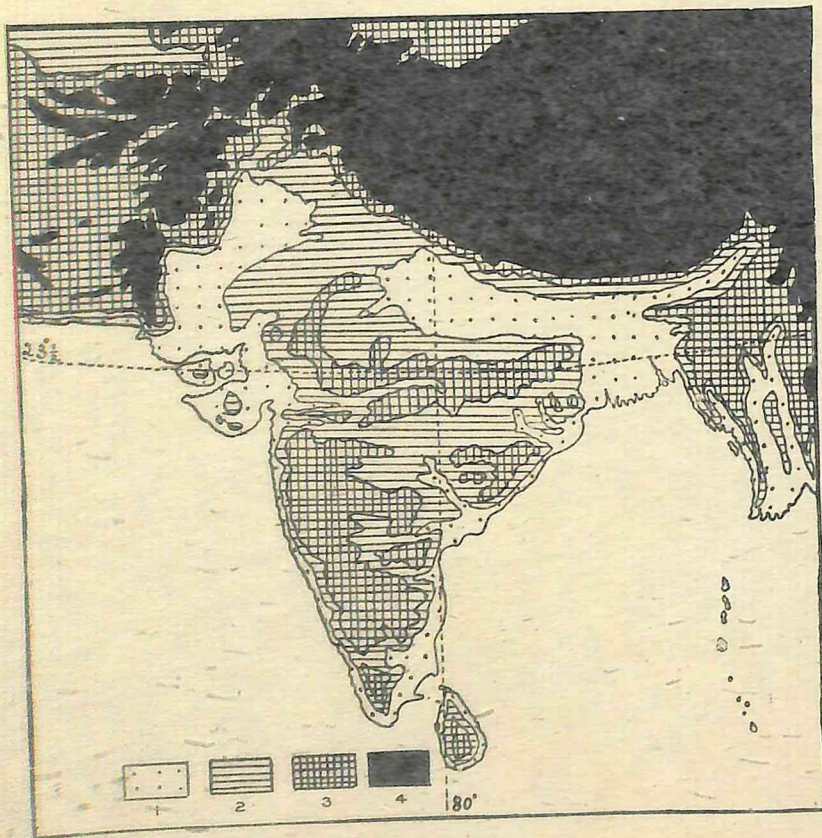
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The small figure on the title-page represents Buddha (see page 40 and picture 36). The seated Buddha is usually shown in one of three attitudes. If his hands are folded together in his lap, he is contemplating ; if his right hand points downwards, he is in the act of renouncing the work ; if his hands are raised together, as shown in the picture, he is teaching.

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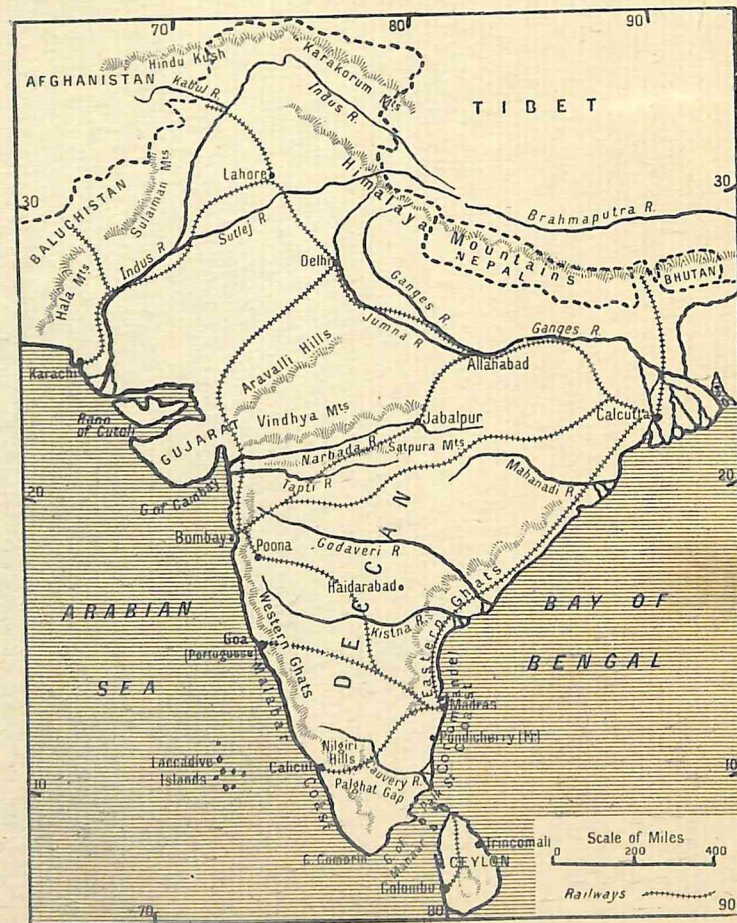




RELIEF MAP OF INDIA.

No. 3.

This map shows heights by means of shading—the deeper the shading the higher the land. As, however, the solid black represents all country over 6000 feet high, the contrast between the Himalayan wall (20,000 feet or more above the sea) and the Tibetan plateau (about 12,000–15,000 feet) is not brought out.

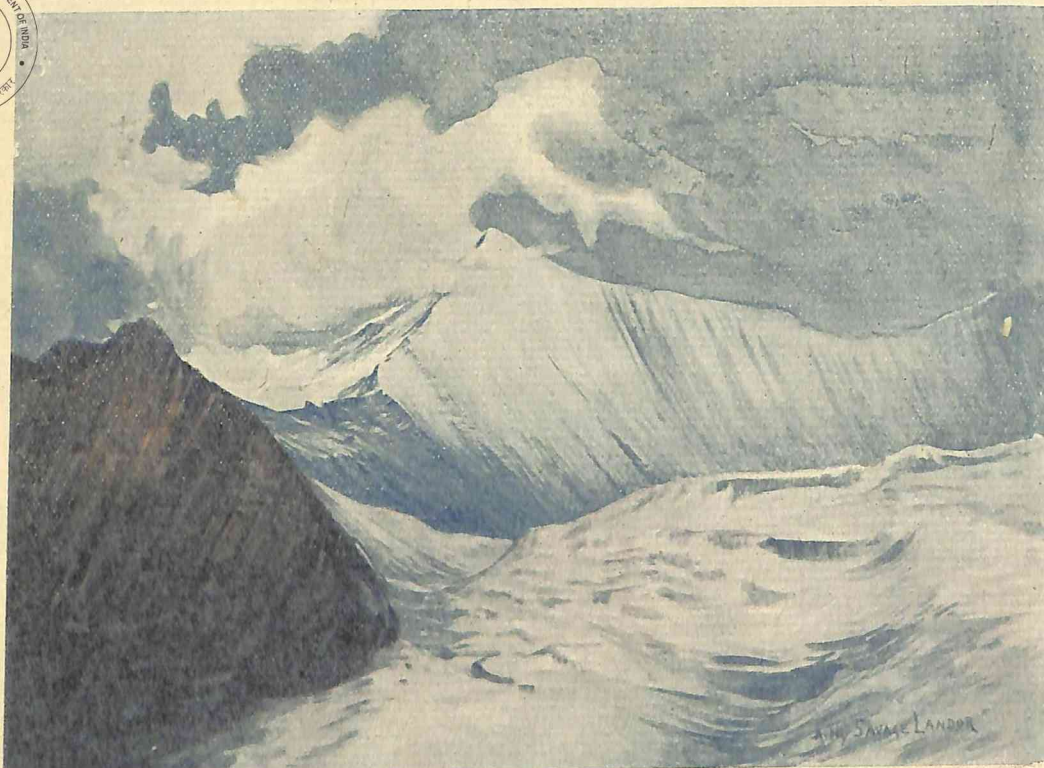


No. 4.

#### INDIAN RIVERS AND RAILWAYS.

Notice (a) how the valleys of the rivers shown on this map are indicated on the relief map (No. 3); (b) how the main lines of railway take advantage of the river valleys and coastal plains, and avoid the high ground as much as possible.





No. 5. SNOWY WASTES AMONG THE HIMALAYAN SUMMITS.

On the Himalayas the snow-line, above which snow and ice never melt, is about 12,000 feet above sea-level on the southern side. The snow and ice above this slide or are pushed down by the weight above and so form glaciers (see picture 1) which at their lower ends melt and give rise to rivers.



No. 6. YAK CARAVAN CROSSING A HIMALAYAN PASS.

Refer to pages 28 and 49. The yaks are carrying bales of wool. There is a pony on the left side of the picture. Notice the Tibetan drover with his thick padded coat. He is carrying a matchlock. Fixed to it can be seen the stand on which it is rested when it is fired.



# INDIA IN PICTURES

## I. POSITION.

ON its southern side the huge continent of Asia tapers into three great peninsulas. In the west is the plateau of Arabia cut off from Africa by the long and narrow Red Sea, while on the east stretches the Malay Peninsula continued south-eastward by the East Indian Islands which, like fragments of a broken bridge, link it to the island-continent of Australia. Between Arabia and Africa on the one side, and the Malay Peninsula, the East Indies, and Australia on the other, lies a deep ocean, into which juts the third peninsula—that of India. Its southernmost point, Cape Comorin, is rather more than 500 miles from the Equator. On the northern side of India stretch 3000 miles of highland, desert, and bleak lowland to well within the confines of the Arctic Circle; while to the south lies a waste of waters, broken here and there by a group of tiny islands, until we reach the frozen shores of the great Antarctic continent. Thus India lies between a great land-mass and a great ocean; and this fact—as we shall see—profoundly affects its climate.

## II. RELIEF AND RIVERS.

India itself is also a land of marked contrasts. A physical map will show that the country consists of three well-defined divisions—a mountain wall, a low-lying plain, and a plateau. We must look at each of these in greater detail.

The north of India is shut in on three sides by ranges of mountains. In the centre the curving wall of the Himalayas rises very steeply to enormous heights, and contains some of the loftiest peaks in the world. Mount Everest, for example, stands over five miles above the plain which reaches to within eighty miles to the south of it. But on the northern side of this mountain wall is the bleak and frozen plateau of Tibet, more than two miles high above the level of the sea. At either end—both east and west—the Himalayas break into a fringe or tassel of ranges running roughly north and



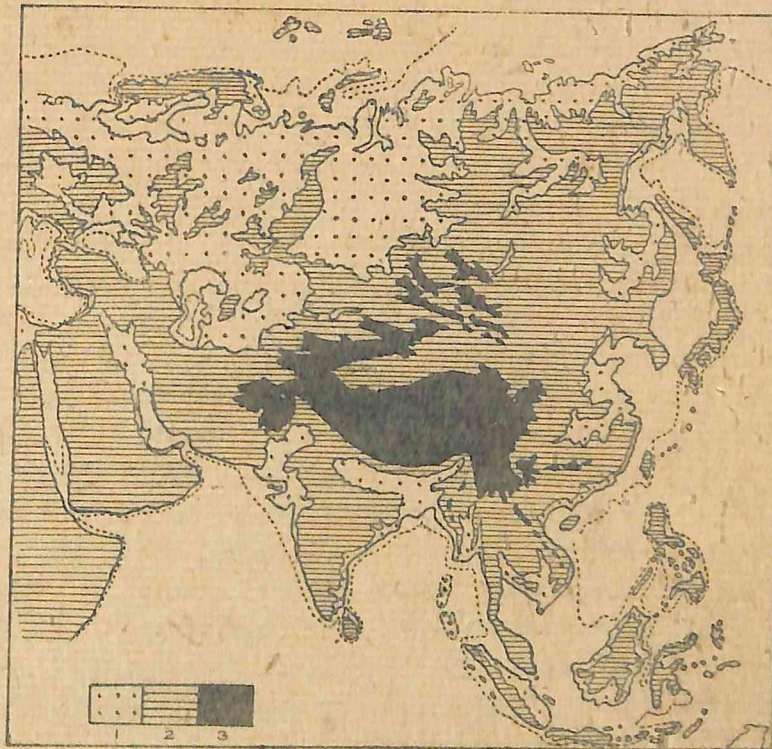


south—i.e. at right angles to the general direction of the Himalayas themselves. On the east are the **Arakan** Mountains and numerous parallel ranges which are continued in Burma and Farther India; while westward lie the **Hindu Kush**, the **Sulaiman**, and other mountain chains which shut off the north-west of India from the mountains and deserts of Afghanistan and Baluchistan.

A vast plain is enclosed between the lofty Himalaya range and the two arms which stretch southwards on either side. This plain is so low that if the sea were to rise only 600 feet, the greater part of it would be submerged. It is drained by two great rivers and their tributaries. In the west is the **Indus**. It rises on the north side of the Himalayas (see picture 2), and for the first 600 miles of its course runs north-westwards, fed by glaciers, until it breaks through the mountain wall at the north-western end of the Himalayas, and descends in a series of rapids through steep-sided gorges until it emerges into the plain. There it receives five tributaries which have given the name of **Panjab**, or “Land of Five Rivers,” to the surrounding district. All these tributaries rise on the south side of the Himalayas. Chief of them are the **Jehlam** and the **Sutlej**. The lower Indus receives no tributaries of any size, and, except during the rainy season, has but a small volume of water. It finally makes its way through a delta into the Arabian Sea.

The Indus drains the north-western portion of the plain of Northern India; but the central and eastern parts of it form the basin of another river—the **Ganges**—and its tributaries. The whole lowland region is, therefore, often known as the Indo-Gangetic Plain. The Ganges, unlike the Indus, rises on the south side of the Himalayas. It emerges from a glacier high among the mountains, but rapidly descends to the plain and takes an easterly direction. It receives an enormous number of tributaries, chiefly from the north; but some of them, including the **Jamna** and the **Son**, flow into it from the southern side. The supply of water is fairly constant, and at certain periods of the year very great indeed. Hence the Ganges, unlike the Indus again, has always a strong and full current, and is even liable to flood. Shortly before it enters the sea it is joined by the **Brahmaputra**, a stream which rises in Tibet, not far from the source of the Indus, but which flows in an easterly direction, parallel with and on the north side of the Himalayas. It also descends rapidly through almost impassible ravines, until it comes out at the extreme north-eastern corner of the Indo-Gangetic Plain. There it reverses its former direction and flows westwards to join the Ganges. The united rivers run to the Bay of Bengal through a large delta with many distributaries.





1. Under 600. 2. 600-6000. 3. Over 6000. Height in feet.  
..... = Hundred-fathom line.

No. 7.

RELIEF MAP OF ASIA.

This map shows how India is cut off from the rest of Asia. The black-shaded mass is the Tibetan Plateau. North of it stretch the high-lying deserts of Central Asia. The mountains of Burma run north and south and are thickly forested. In Afghanistan there are more lofty deserts; but the north-west frontier route leading to the lowlands of south-west Asia can be made out from the map. (Refer to the bottom of page 10.)

To the south of the plain of the Indus and Ganges lies the peninsula part of India. It consists of a triangular plateau, called the Deccan, the height of which is very much less than that of the great Himalayan wall farther north. The tableland itself is fringed with a narrow coastal plain on the west side, and a wider one along the coast which fronts the Bay of Bengal. The western brink of the Deccan Plateau, known as the Western Ghats, and continued southward in the Nilgiri and Cardamom Hills, is higher than that on the east—the Eastern Ghats; and this general eastward slope of the greater part of this tableland is shown by the direction taken by many of the rivers which trench its surface. Examples are furnished by the Godavari, Kistna, and Cauvery. In the north of the Deccan, however, the highest land is in the north-east. Here rise the Son



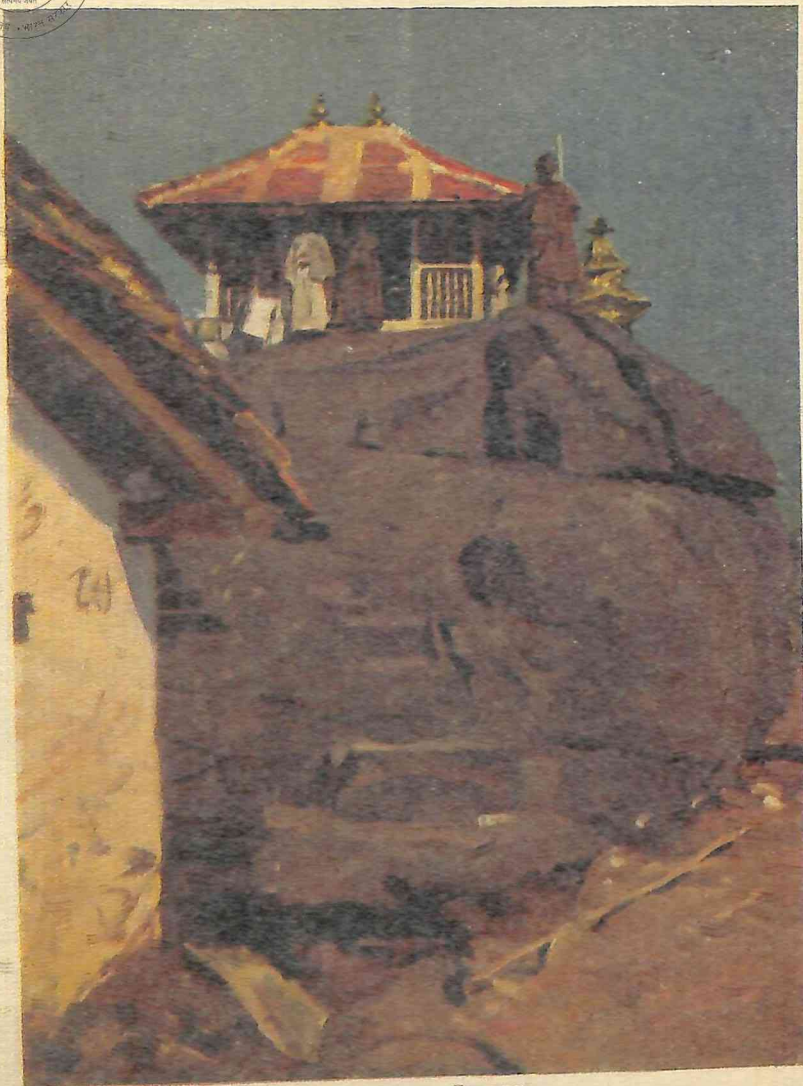
which flows northwards to join the Ganges, the **Mahanadi** which runs south-eastwards to the Bay of Bengal, and the **Narbada** and **Tapti** which run due west to the Gulf of Cambay, and the valleys of which are separated by the **Satpura** Range. North of the **Narbada** lie the **Vindhya** Mountains, and the **Deccan** is bounded on the north-west by the outlying **Aravalli** Hills which separate it from the plain of the **Indus**.

To these three main regions of India—the northern mountains, the Indo-Gangetic Plain, and the **Deccan** Plateau—we may perhaps add a fourth, the island of **Ceylon**. Ages ago it doubtless formed part of the Indian peninsula, but now it is cut off by the shallow **Palk Strait**, and linked to the mainland merely by a chain of islands known as **Adam's Bridge**. In outline and form **Ceylon** is not unlike a pear which has been cut in half, and laid flat upon its cut side. The highest part of the island is in the south, where it rises to a height of 8300 feet in **Mount Pedrotalagala**; a better known summit is **Adam's Peak**, which is somewhat less in height, but to which numerous pilgrimages are made (see picture 8).

**Burma**, although it is reckoned as part of India for purposes of government, is, from a strictly geographical point of view, distinct from the rest of the country. It is more closely connected with Indo-China and Farther India than with India itself; but because it forms part of our Indian Empire it must be dealt with in this book.

If you will think now of the three main regions of which the Indian mainland is composed, and examine the maps on pages 5 and 9, you will see that, although the country is part of Asia, it is cut off by nature from the rest of the continent. Eastward a whole series of mountain chains and river valleys, running north and south, interpose an effective barrier between it and China. Northwards comes first the wide and lofty wall of the **Himalayas**, then the frozen desert of **Tibet**, and then huge stretches of mountain and desert, before we reach the lower and more habitable regions of **Central Asia**. Westwards lies another series of mountains and deserts, difficult and dangerous to cross; but in the north-west corner of the Indo-Gangetic Plain, in the angle between the **Himalayas** and the ranges which run to the **Arabian Sea**, there are passes leading to the fertile regions of **Western Turkistan**. This is the chief direction from which India is open to attack on the landward side, and it is through these passes of the north-west that, on many occasions in her history, she has been invaded. It was not until the arrival of the maritime nations of **Europe** that she became liable to be conquered from the sea.



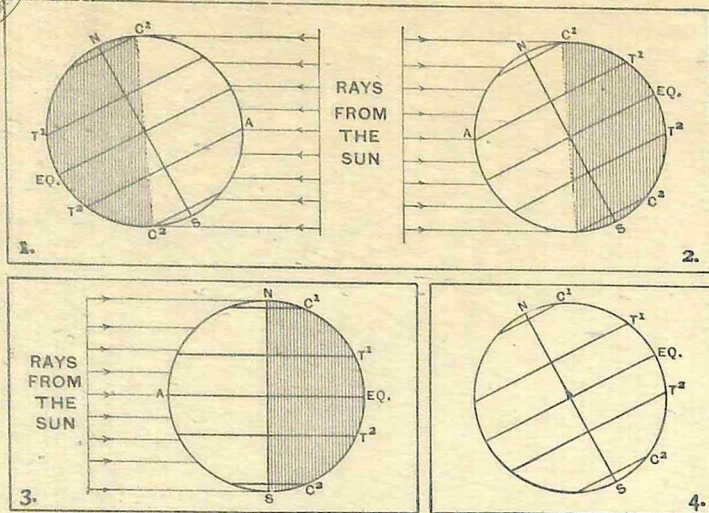


**No. 8.** ADAM'S PEAK, CEYLON.  
The picture shows the summit of the mountain. On the top of the great boulder in the background there is a mark about 4 feet long, roughly resembling a footprint. The South Buddhists claim that it was made by Buddha, the Muhammedans by Adam, and the Indian Christians by St Thomas. As can be seen, a small chapel has been built over the footmark.



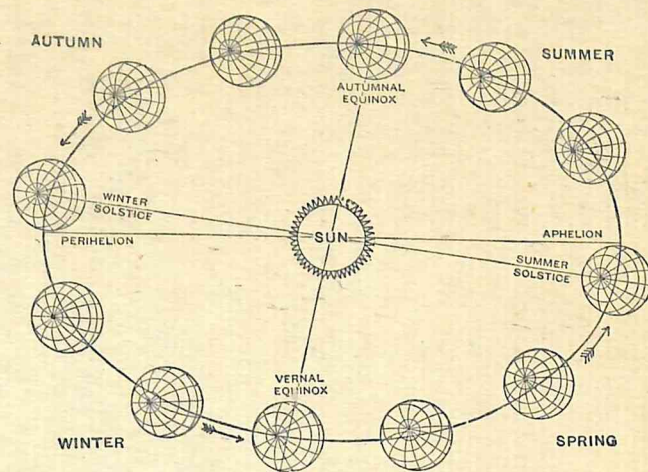
**No. 9.** THE ARMY OF ALEXANDER THE GREAT.  
In the fourth century B.C. Alexander, King of Macedon in the north of Greece, invaded India through the passes of the North-West, but he did not get further eastwards than the Panjab. This was the first time that India came into close touch with Europe.





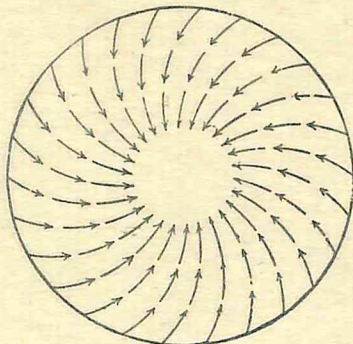
No. 10 (a).

The Earth's position at (1) the Winter or Southern Solstice—about 22nd December; (2) the Summer or Northern Solstice—about 22nd June; (3) the Spring and Autumn Equinoxes—about 21st March and 23rd September; (4) the Earth's position as seen from the Sun at the Autumn Equinox. [A=the point where the Sun's rays fall at right angles at noon.]



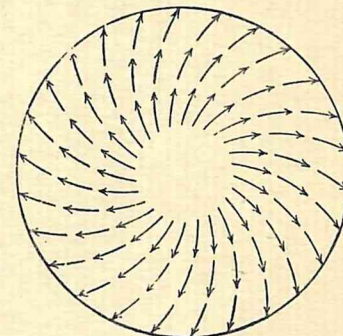
No. 10 (b).

This diagram shows that although the inclination of the Earth's axis to its orbit does not vary, the line which separates light from dark, as the Earth revolves round the Sun, tends to change its position on the Earth's surface. At the Equinoxes it passes through the Poles; but at the Solstices one Pole is continually in the dark and the other in the light.



No. 11 (a).

No. 11. Refer to page 14. In (a) the winds are being sucked in from cooler to hotter regions and are rising in the centre of the swirl. This condition is known as a *cyclone*. In (b) the opposite condition is shown. The air is falling and moving outwards from cooler to warmer regions. This is an *anticyclone*. The direction of the swirls as shown in these diagrams holds good for the Northern Hemisphere only. In the Southern Hemisphere the winds in a cyclone swirl with a clockwise motion, while those of an anticyclone are anticlockwise.



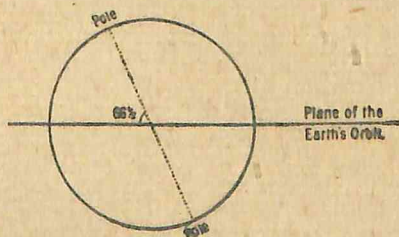
No. 11 (b).



### III. CLIMATE.

By the climate of a country we mean the kind of weather which it has on an average throughout the year. The character of the climate of a country is a matter of the very utmost importance to the people who dwell there. It determines their food, their clothes, the structure of their houses, their occupations and habits. It decides whether their land will be productive or barren, what commodities they can produce and export, and what they must obtain from other lands. Even the character of the inhabitants is to some extent controlled by the climate of their country; if they live always in a hot and damp atmosphere, they lose their energy and lack driving force; whereas if the climate is bracing they are manly and vigorous. The pursuits and habits and characteristics of the peoples who live in the different parts of India vary widely; and we might, therefore, conclude that the climate itself is of many different types throughout the land. This is indeed the case. It has been said that as regards physical features India is a land of great contrasts; and, in fact, contrasts almost as great are presented by its climate, although the underlying cause of the contrasts is not really difficult to understand.

A large part of India lies south of the Tropic of Cancer. This line of latitude cuts across the northern edge of the Deccan and passes near Calcutta. All parts of the world which lie between the two Tropics receive the sun's rays at right angles at noon at some period of the year. The reason for this is that the axis of the earth is not at right angles



The earth *revolves* (i.e. moves forward) round the sun along the plane of its orbit; but at the same time it is always *rotating* (i.e. spinning) on its axis, shown by the dotted line.

to the path or orbit which it follows as it travels round the sun, but is sloped, as shown in the small diagram on this page, at an angle of  $66\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$ . The result is that during part of the year the South Pole is turned towards the sun, while the North Pole has a continuous night; but during the rest of the year the opposite is the case. The extreme positions are reached about 22nd December (No. 1 in diagram 10 (a) on page 12) and

22nd June (No. 2 in the diagram). In the former case the sun's rays fall at right angles at noon on the Tropic of Capricorn, and in the latter on the Tropic of Cancer. Twice a year—about 21st March and 23rd September—this condition crosses the Equator, which lies not far south of the southernmost tip of India. Now this means that all the peninsula part of India—



*i.e.* the Deccan—will have the sun high in the heavens at noon from soon after the end of March until the early part of September. The more directly the rays fall, the greater is the amount of heat which is received; so that, apart from any other reason, we should expect India to have a hot climate—much hotter than a country which, like England, lies far outside the Tropics. Naturally, the lowlands will tend to be warmer than the mountains which stand high above the surface of the earth which receives the heat; and so we find that the altitude of the land helps to counteract the effects of its latitude. For example, in the hot season Darjiling (nearly 8000 feet above sea-level), on the lower slopes of the Himalayas, is much cooler than Lucknow which stands in the midst of the Ganges Plain, although both are in much the same latitude.

The climate of the different parts of India, however, is determined not only by their position on the face of the globe, but even more, perhaps, by the winds and rain which they receive; although, as we shall soon see, the winds and rain themselves are ultimately determined by questions of latitude. The whole of south-eastern Asia from Manchuria to the Indus experiences winds which are called **monsoons**. Their distinguishing feature is that they change their direction at different seasons of the year; in fact the word “monsoon” means “season” in Arabic. This seasonal change of direction, though well known to everyone in India, would seem strange in the British Isles where most of the winds blow from the west or south-west all through the year. During the months of June and July, the sun’s rays fall at right angles at noon in the neighbourhood of the Tropic of Cancer. This causes the parts of India in these latitudes to become extremely hot—hotter than the neighbouring ocean, for land always tends to take in and give out heat more quickly than does the sea. But we know that hot air rises, and that the cooler surrounding air flows in to take its place. The hottest region in Asia during the summer months is an area which includes part of the north-west of India—*i.e.* a district near the Tropic of Cancer, and shut off from the cooling influence of the sea. Here, therefore, the air tends to rise, and towards this centre the winds come swirling in with a movement opposite to that of the hands of a watch (see diagram 11 (a), on page 12). At this time of year, therefore, the monsoon winds over India will blow chiefly from a south-westerly direction, although in the eastern parts of the country they may tend to become more southerly or even south-easterly. This will perhaps be easier to understand if you refer to the map, 14 (a), on page 16. But—as we saw on page 13—towards the end of December the sun’s rays fall vertically

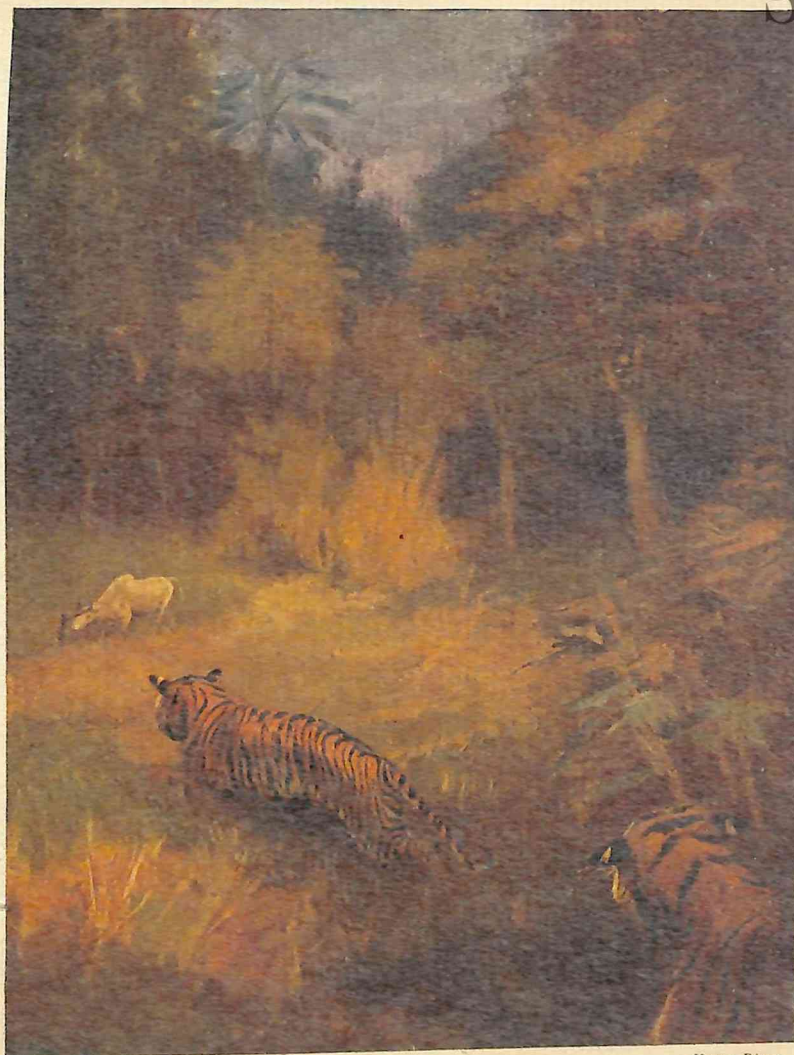




No. 12.

# A HIMALAYAN PEAK.

The upper slopes of the Himalayas are rich in many kinds of gorgeous flowers which are at their best from April to June. In the picture a clump of rhododendrons can be seen. They are found at a height of 7000 to 8000 feet. Other gorgeous Himalayan flowers are the magnolia and the hydrangea.



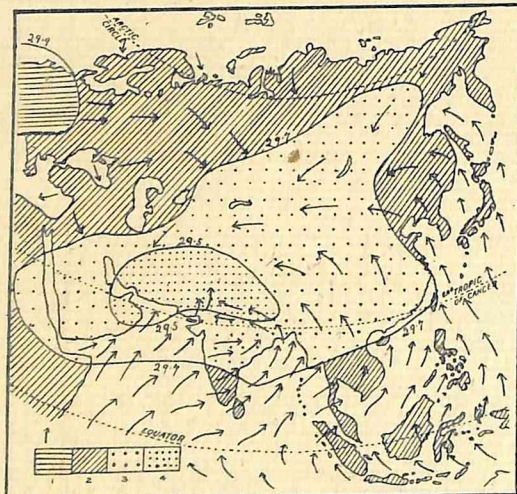
No. 13.

# A SCENE IN THE TERAI.

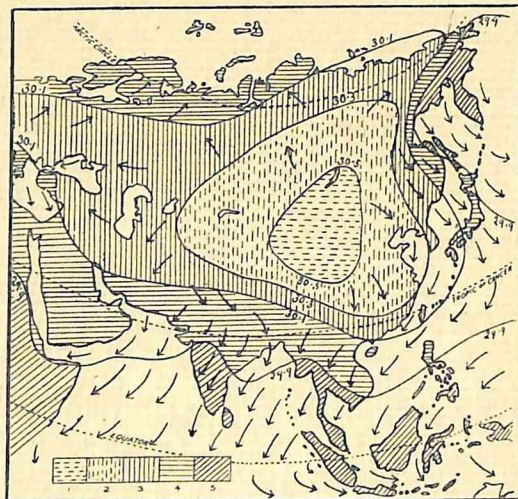
Refer to pages 31 and 49. The Terai is a strip of jungle along the foot of the Himalayas. Contrast this type of scenery with that of the Himalayan summits (pictures 1, 2, 5 and 12). The Terai is the haunt of tigers. A cow has been tied to a stake as a bait for them. Some hunters are watching from the tree on the right; the ladder by which they ascended can just be made out.

Harry Dixon.

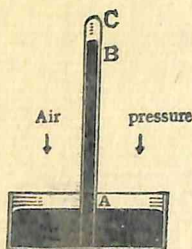




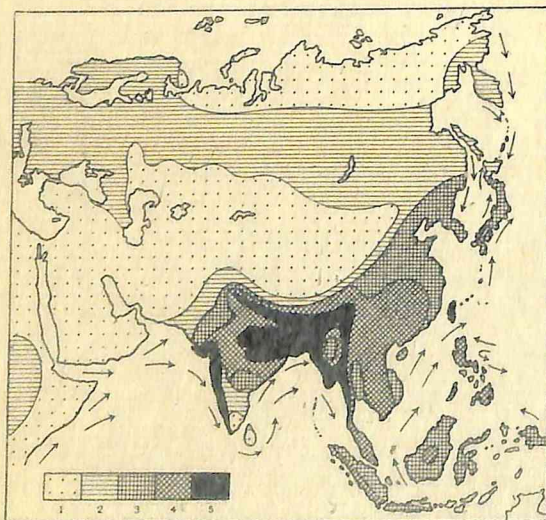
No. 14 (a). ASIA—WINDS (JULY).



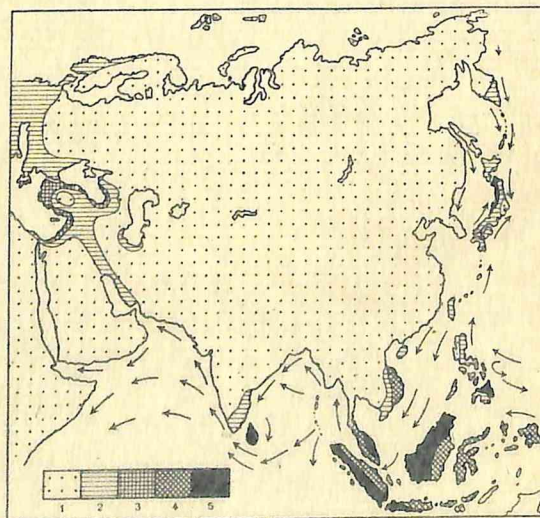
No. 14 (b). ASIA—WINDS (JAN.).



Air possesses weight which can be measured by an instrument called a *barometer*. This consists normally of a glass tube well over 30 inches in length, which is closed at one end and open at the other. It is filled with mercury and then inverted in a dish of the same liquid. The pressure of the air forces the column of mercury to rise to a height of about 30 inches (A-B) in the tube, so long as there is no air (B-C) above this column. If the surrounding air is rising the pressure is somewhat relieved and the height of the column will fall below 30 inches; if the air is falling the pressure is increased and the height of the column will rise above 30 inches. The figures on maps 14 (a) and (b) show the heights of the barometer in the different parts of Asia. Notice in 14 (a) that when the air is coming in and rising the pressure is low (29.5 inches); and in 14 (b) that when the air is moving out and falling the pressure is high (30.5 inches).



No. 15 (a). ASIA—RAINFALL (JULY).



No. 15 (b). ASIA—RAINFALL (JAN.).

The amount of rain received is shown by the shading; the deeper the shading, the heavier is the rainfall. The arrows on these maps show the direction of ocean currents. In some cases there are *drifts*, i.e. surface water, blown along by the prevailing winds. These currents, therefore, change their direction according to the seasonal change of winds. Compare the direction of the currents as shown on these maps with that of the winds as shown on the corresponding maps above; it will be seen that in some cases they are the same.





at noon along the Tropic of Capricorn, which crosses the northern part of the land-mass of Australia. The great continent of Asia is turned away from the sun, and is losing much of its heat. The tendency, therefore, is for the cool air to move out with a clockwise swirl from this icy-cold land-mass towards the ocean which lies south of it, and which is much warmer (see diagram 11 (b) on page 12, and map 14 (b) on page 16). This is the direction of the ordinary north-east trade winds, which are found in other parts of the world between the Tropic of Cancer and the Equator, and thus the so-called "north-east monsoons" are not quite so much entitled to the name as are the south-west monsoons. At the same time some of these winds are drawn across the Equator towards the heated northern part of Australia, and this region, therefore, at this time of year experiences real monsoons similar to those which India receives during the northern summer months.

It is upon the monsoons that the rainfall of India depends. The winds which in the hot season come rushing in towards the heated region in the north-west have crossed a vast ocean over which the tropical sun causes great evaporation. They are, therefore, laden with moisture. As the map shows, they reach India chiefly as south-west or southerly winds. The first land which they encounter is the brink of the Western Ghats. Here they are forced to rise; thus they are cooled, and much of their moisture is condensed. This is the cause of the heavy July (summer) rainfall on the west side of the Deccan (see map 15 (a)). Other currents of the south-west monsoon pass over the Deccan at a higher altitude until they reach the Himalayan wall, which forces them to rise and deflects their direction towards the west. The Himalayas are so high that the rainfall brought by the south-west monsoons to their southern face and over the Ganges valley is enormous. This is particularly the case at the eastern end, where the monsoons blow straight off the Bay of Bengal. There is a town in the Assam hills called Cherra Punji, which is said to have more rain in the course of the year than any other place in the world. As much as 800 inches of rainfall have been received here in the course of a single year, and you should compare this with the annual rainfall of the place in which you live. Moreover, the rain at Cherra Punji is not received at intervals throughout the whole year, as is the case, for example, with places in the British Isles; the bulk of it falls during the four months or so while the influence of the south-west monsoon is being felt.

There is one part of Western India which escapes the full rain-bearing effect of the south-west monsoon. As the winds are turned aside by



the barrier of the Himalayas they leave the north-west corner of the country almost untouched; there are, indeed, parts of the Indus valley which are practically rainless. Moreover, some of the rain-bearing winds are warded off by the mountains of Baluchistan, which thus shelter this region. Again, the valley of the lower Indus and the country to the east of it are so low and level that there is nothing to stop any wet winds which may succeed in reaching this region. We, therefore, find that it is practically rainless, and that there is here a large desert—that of Thar. But with the exception of this district and the south-east of India, the greater part of the country is deluged with rain during the blowing of the south-west monsoon.

Very different is the effect of the north-east monsoon which blows during the cool season. It comes from a cold land-mass; it is, therefore, dry, and as it moves towards warmer regions it tends to pick up rather than to give up moisture, for warm air can hold more moisture than cool air. During the winter months, therefore, there is little rain in India. When the north-east monsoon reaches the warmer regions of the Tropics, and passes over the Bay of Bengal, it does pick up some moisture which it sheds again on the extreme south-east corner of the Deccan and on the hills of Ceylon. This accounts for the shading shown here on the rainfall map for January (15 (b) on page 16).

The general climate of India may be summed up as follows: During the cool season (November—February) the influence of the north-east monsoon is felt and the rainfall is slight. At the end of March the sun's rays fall at right angles at noon on the Equator, and this condition advances northwards during the next three months. This, therefore, is a hot weather season over India; at first intense heat is felt, but the monsoon has not yet arrived. It usually reaches the west coast of India about the end of May. This brings the rains which last until about the middle of September, when the south-west monsoons diminish in force and eventually give place to a wind blowing in an opposite direction.

The south-west monsoon is of vital importance to India, and its coming is eagerly expected. During the hot season before the south-west monsoon arrives, the land looks parched and many of the rivers are almost, if not quite, empty. But as soon as the monsoon rains begin the crops are sown and the rivers are in flood. In the Deccan, water is stored up in tanks or reservoirs, so that it may be used for irrigation in the drier part of the year. In the Ganges Plain much of the moisture is preserved underground, where it can be tapped by sinking wells. In spite of these methods of storing up water, things may become serious for the Indian peasant if for





No. 16.

# A TANK IN MYSORE.

A "tank" in India is really a small lake, often artificially made. Sometimes it is enclosed by a pavement or buildings, but is more often open, as shown here. This picture, and that below, illustrate the vital importance in Indian life of a good water supply.

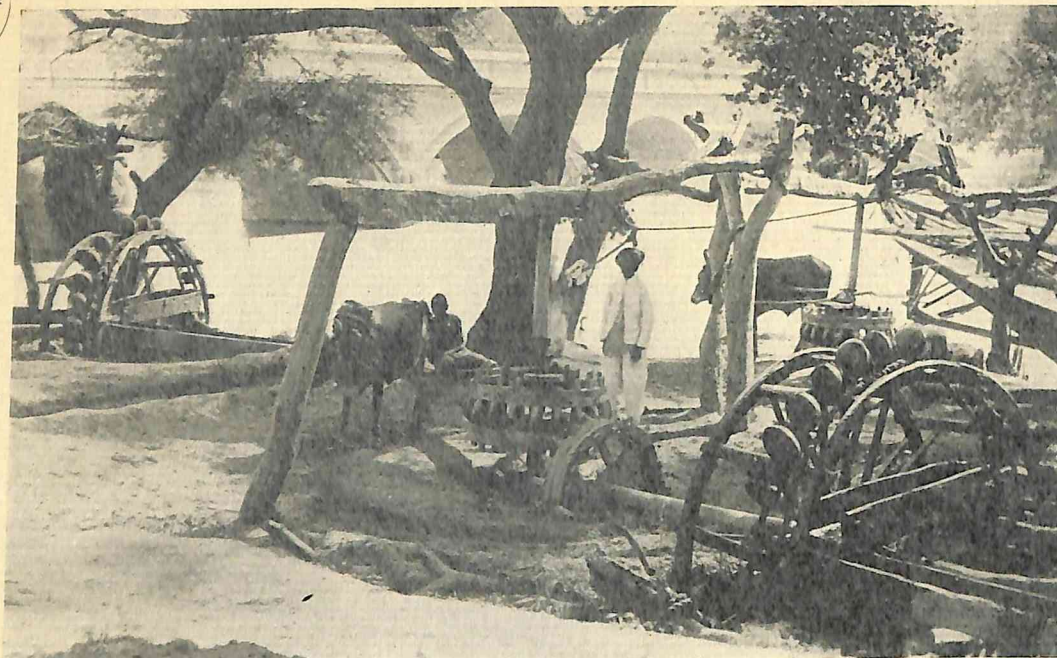


No. 17.

# INDIAN WOMEN AT A WELL.

The well is one of the busiest spots in an Indian village or town, for the women are going to and from it all day long. Notice the graceful earthenware water-pots which are balanced on the head of the carrier. This picture shows a scene in Jeypore, the principal city of Rajputana.





*Photo by R. Jalbkey.*

No. 18.

# IRRIGATION WHEELS, SIND.

In the background can be seen a river from which the water is drawn. The irrigation wheels are provided with buckets and are worked by a buffalo; as the water is raised it is poured into a trough connected with small canals, which lead to the cultivated fields.



*Topical Press.*

No. 19.

# RICE CULTIVATION.

Refer to the middle of page 22. Notice (a) the flooded muddy soil; (b) the primitive wooden plough drawn by water-buffaloes; (c) the Indian peasants or "ryots" (see page 41); (d) the palm trees in the background.





any reason the rains brought by the south-west monsoon do not arrive. As a matter of fact, there is almost always some part or other of India which suffers from drought each year; for even if the monsoon brings abundant rain to most districts, there will probably be a few corners of the country which receive insufficient rainfall. It is possible for crops to grow only when sufficient supplies of water are available, and if the monsoon rains fail in a district for two years in succession, and the water stored in tanks is thus used up, utter drought sets in and famine results. Then an Indian village presents a terrible sight; the fields are bare and burnt up, the cattle are dead or dying for there is nothing to eat; the peasants themselves are reduced to skin and bone, and disease breaks out and makes short work of its starving victims. The British Government has naturally devoted much attention to famine relief; when famine threatens in India large supplies of rice are bought up wherever they can be obtained, and, with the help of the railways, which now cross India in every direction, food is despatched to those districts where the famine is at its height. Then it is the duty of the English officials on the spot to send bullock carts for the grain to the nearest railway station, and to distribute food to the starving villagers. Sometimes relief camps are set up in which the peasants from the surrounding villages collect, and where hospitals are provided for the sick. During a great famine in the years 1899 and 1900 it is said that as many as six and a half million people received help every day. In this way the British Government is able to serve the people of India in their time of need; it cannot prevent the famines entirely, because they depend on lack of rainfall, but it can and does organise relief for those who would otherwise starve through failure of the crops and inability to earn a living.

#### IV. VEGETABLE PRODUCTS.

The greater part of the inhabitants of India are dependent on agriculture for their livelihood. It is possible to grow two, or even three, crops a year in many parts of India, and sometimes, though not usually, on the same piece of land. In the districts which receive the full benefit of the rains brought by the south-west monsoon, one crop is generally sown soon after the rainy season has begun, and it is ready to be reaped in October or November. Then the next crop is planted, and it will be ripe before the hot weather sets in. The cool season in north-west India is not unlike the summer in northern Europe, and therefore we find similar crops in the two places. Wheat and barley, for example, can be grown in this part of India; the Panjab and United



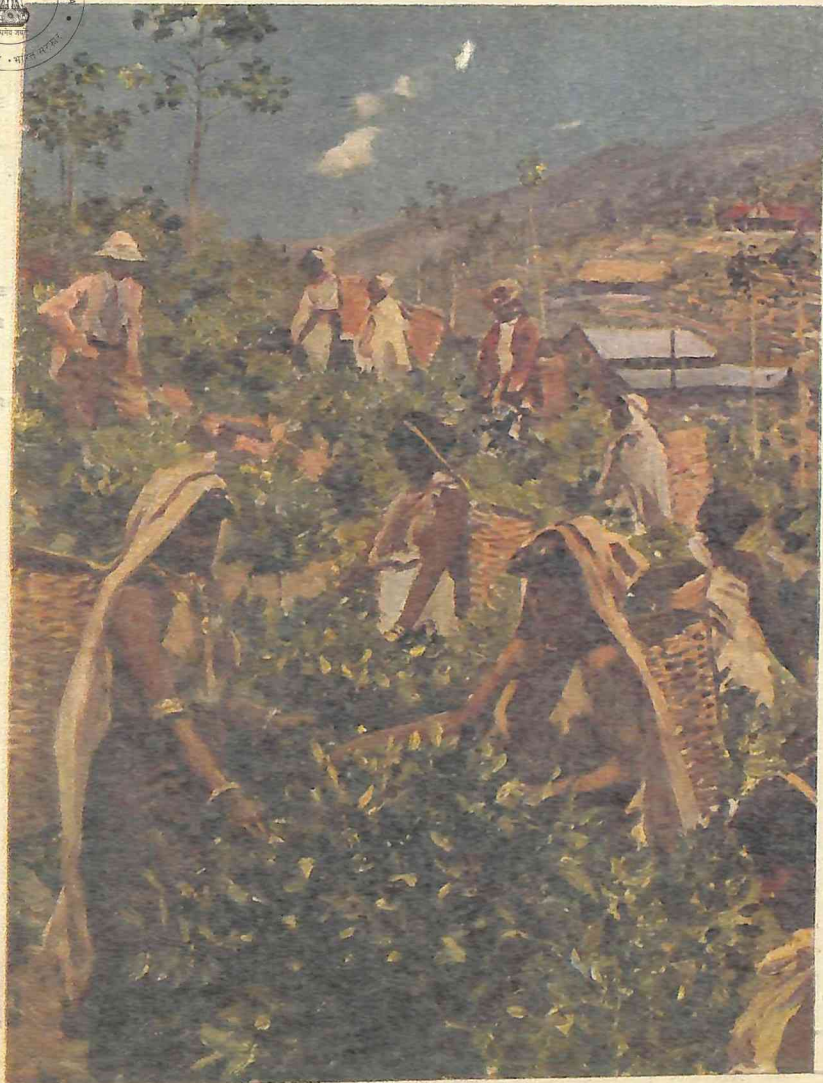


Provinces are the chief wheat-producing districts, and large quantities of their grain are exported from Karachi near the mouth of the Indus. But wheat is not by any means so important a food-crop in India as it is in the British Isles. Throughout the Deccan millets and pulses form the usual food of the peasants who till the land. There are various kinds of millets; the chief kinds are the great millet or sorghum, known in India as *joár*, and the spiked millet or *bajna*. Their seeds are used in England chiefly for feeding poultry and cage-birds; but in India they are largely employed for making the thin unleavened cakes called "chupattis." Pulse is a name given to plants which bear pods containing seeds, and of which the best known varieties are peas and beans. The kind found most frequently in India is the chick-pea, or gram; it grows on a bush about two feet in height which has a pale violet flower and bears short two-seeded pods. The Indian peasants who cultivate these crops are practically vegetarians. They are either too poor to buy meat or else they are debarred by religious reasons from eating it; and so they eke out their cakes of millet or pulse flour with garden produce, and flavour them with salt or spices.

In many parts of India another food-plant is cultivated—rice. This crop needs not only a high temperature, but the fields in which it has to be grown have to be flooded at certain times (see picture 19). For this reason the parts of India most suited to its cultivation are Western Burma, the plain of the Ganges—particularly its delta—and the low-lying coastal plains which fringe the Deccan. When the fields are flooded the plants sprout at an astonishing rate; it is said that a stalk has been known to grow as much as nine inches within twenty-four hours. It is thus possible to obtain two harvests of rice every year in Bengal, and by far the greater part of the cultivated land in this part of India is given up to this crop. In other parts of India where the rainfall is not so heavy, rice can be cultivated with the help of irrigation. Many canals have been constructed in order to bring from a neighbouring river the water that is required for the rice-plant.

The food-plants of India then are wheat, millet, pulses, and rice; and of these the first is the least important. But there are many other plants which are cultivated for various purposes. In the Deccan, for example, oil-seeds of various kinds are grown. The most important is linseed, the seed of the flax plant. The oil which is pressed from it dries quickly on being exposed to the air, and it is therefore valuable for making varnishes and oil-paints. When treated with sulphur and mixed with ground cork it is pressed upon canvas, and so forms linoleum floorcloth.





No. 20.

A TEA PLANTATION.

Notice (a) the Indian women who are carefully plucking the leaves; (b) the European manager who is usually known as a "tea-planter"; (c) the factory where the tea is prepared for market; (d) on the hill in the background the bungalow in which the planter lives.



No. 21.

A SCENE IN THE JUNGLE.

The Jungle or Equatorial Forest is the result of great heat and abundant rainfall. The trees and undergrowth are so luxuriant that it is almost impossible to clear a path through them, and the recesses of the forest are dark and sunless. Notice the cobra—a hooded snake which is very common in India.



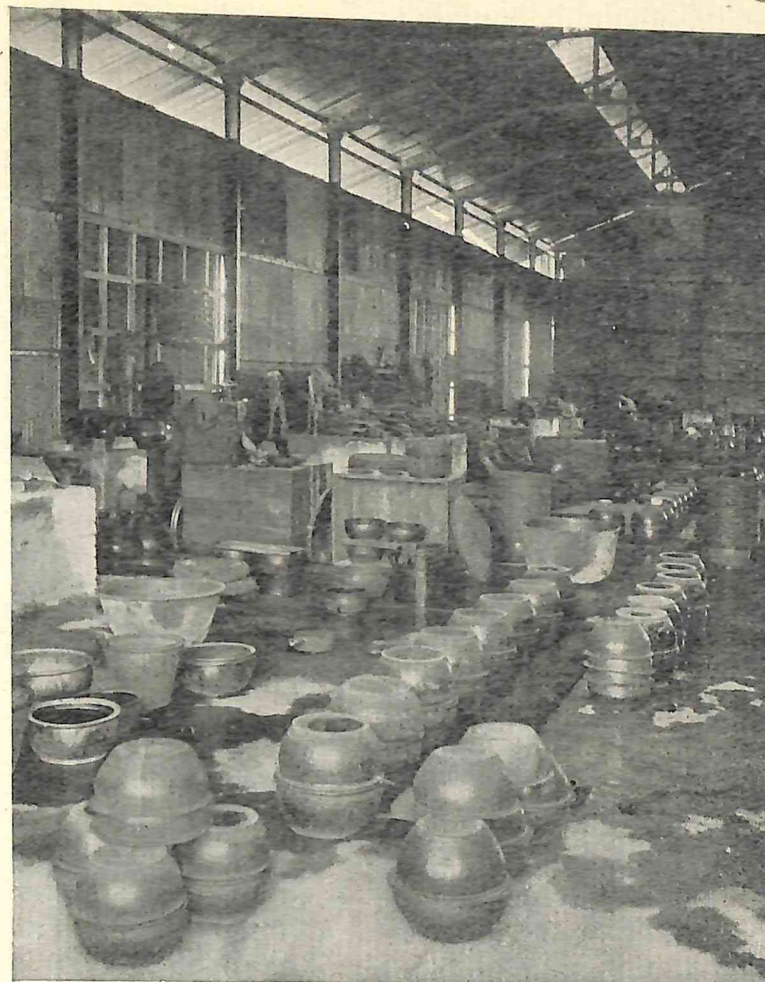


No. 22.

### THE TEA PLANT.

*Skeen & Co., Colombo.*

The picture shows (a) the flowers, which are white or pale pink and have a delicate scent; (b) the seed-pods in groups of three; (c) the leaves—only the young leaves and shoots are suitable for the best kinds of tea.



No. 23.

### AN OPIUM FACTORY.

*Topical Press.*

To obtain opium the seed-vessel of the poppy is scratched and the juice oozes out and hardens, and is then picked off. The opium industry gives employment to a large number of workers, and the plant is therefore grown wherever there is a suitable climate and a dense population. These conditions are found especially in the neighbourhood of Patna.



Another valuable seed is **rape**, the oil from which can be used for lubricating machinery and for burning in lamps. India is also the chief source of supply of the **castor-oil** seed, the product of which is used as a medicine as well as in soap-making and for other purposes. Oil-seeds of various kinds form an important part of the exports which India sends to other countries.

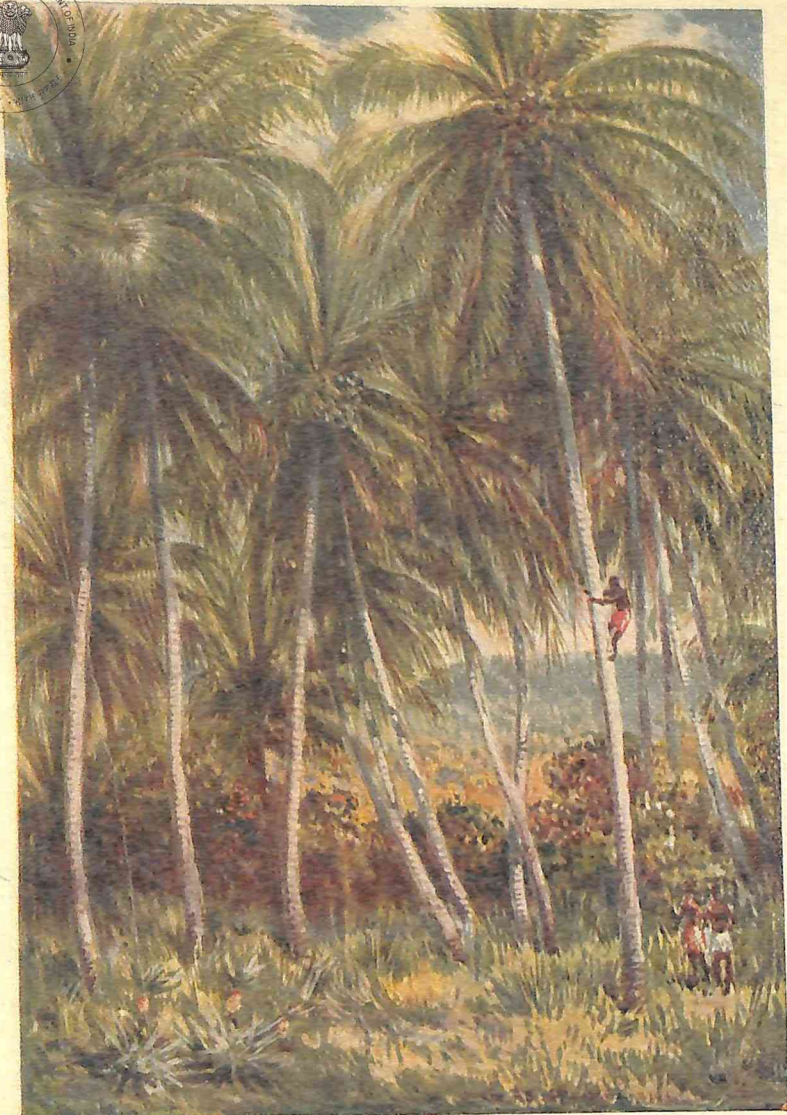
**Cotton** is a valuable Indian product. It grows chiefly in the Deccan. Parts of this plateau are covered with a very fertile black soil. It is of a sticky nature and retains moisture for a long time ; it also contains lime, which is necessary to the cotton plant. Raw cotton forms one of India's chief exports ; it helps to supplement the supplies which Britain receives from the United States and Egypt, but some of it goes to Japan and elsewhere. India receives large quantities of manufactured cotton cloth in return for her raw material, but cotton mills have also been started in Bombay, and this industry is increasing in importance (refer to picture 31 on page 33).

India supplies the world with another important vegetable fibre—**jute**. This is made from the stems of a slender plant, about 10 feet high which, like rice, needs much heat and moisture. For these reasons it is grown chiefly in Bengal. Jute is made by Indian hand-loom weavers into a fabric called gunny cloth in which cotton and other exported products are wrapped ; much of the raw material also is sent to Dundee, which began the manufacture of jute when the Crimean war cut off the supplies of flax and hemp from Russia, on which the industries of the town had hitherto depended. But as with the cotton which India produces, some of the raw jute is now manufactured in the country itself ; and, as might have been expected, the jute mills are to be found in Calcutta and its neighbourhood. Although jute is largely used for making sacking and other coarse materials it can be employed, either alone or combined with other materials, to make carpets, furniture coverings, and even certain kinds of velvets and plushes.

**Silk**, although it is the product of a caterpillar, would most suitably be mentioned here. The rearing of silkworms in India is carried on chiefly in Assam, and in the Central Provinces at the north of the Deccan. The produce of these regions is called tussore silk, and it is usually left in its natural brownish colour instead of being dyed. Richly figured silks are still made by hand at Benares, Ahmadabad, and elsewhere ; but of recent years silk factories worked by machinery have been started at Bombay. Poona is another town which has large silk industries.

**Tea** is an important plant which is grown in India (see picture 22). Its leaves when dried and fermented are used to make a beverage which is drunk in all parts of the world, and therefore tea is a very valuable





No. 24. COCO-NUT PALMS.

The coco-nut palm grows to a height of 60 to 100 feet. Notice the crown of graceful leaves at the base of which the fruit grows. The coco-nut as seen in England is the kernel of the fruit, for the thick fibrous husk or coir (see page 28) has been stripped off.



No. 25. TEAK FOREST AND ELEPHANTS.

The elephant is a native of Burma, and "Irawadi" means "Elephant River." These animals are invaluable for handling the heavy teak logs and dragging them through the jungle to the streams where they are set afloat. Notice (a) the tall teak trees; (b) the native workmen; (c) the European overseer.





Indian export. The plant needs good drainage for, although it requires rain, it is easily injured if the moisture is allowed to collect around the roots. For this reason, as can be gathered from picture 20, tea is usually grown on hill slopes. The leaves are picked several times during the year, and are spread out on canvas trays to wither. Then they are rolled by a machine, and left for some time to ferment. After this the tea is dried by hot air, and sifted before being packed and sent away. The chief tea-growing province in India is Assam, which lies in the north-east angle of the Ganges Plain; but there are also tea plantations in many other places on the lower slopes of the Himalayas, on the Nilgiri Hills in the south of the Deccan, and on the sides of the well-watered valleys of Ceylon. The introduction of tea-cultivation into India was due to the Government. Plantations were first started in the early part of the nineteenth century, but it is only within the last sixty or seventy years that tea-planting in India has become a really important industry.

Coffee, again, is an Indian product, though it is not grown to anything like the same extent as tea. It needs a warm and moist climate, and is usually found nearer to the Equator than tea. The cultivation of coffee in India seems to be increasing; it is carried on chiefly along the sheltered eastern slopes of the Western Ghats in the southern part of the Deccan. In the Nilgiris it is not uncommon to find single estates stretching up the hill sides; at the top end tea is grown, lower down comes a coffee plantation, while along the foot of the hills rubber is cultivated. Coffee was formerly one of the chief exports of Ceylon, but owing largely to the ravages of insects and a kind of mildew which attacks the plants, coffee-growing has been almost entirely abandoned and has given place to the cultivation of tea.

It would be easy to go on describing the many valuable plants which are grown in India, but we must be content with mentioning the more important. Sugar-cane grows in the northern plains, and in Southern India sugar is also extracted from a kind of palm; none the less, India, to supply her needs, has to import considerable stores of sugar from foreign lands. The indigo (*i.e.* "Indian") plant, from which a fine blue dye is extracted, grows in Bengal and in the neighbourhood of Madras. The export of indigo used to form one of the most important parts of Indian trade, but this business has suffered greatly of recent years owing to the manufacture of chemical blue dyes in Europe. Opium, formed of the hardened juice of a kind of poppy, is cultivated in the valley of the Ganges near Patna and Benares, and also in the Malwa district farther west (see picture 23). Opium smoking is, doubtless, a vice, but the drug



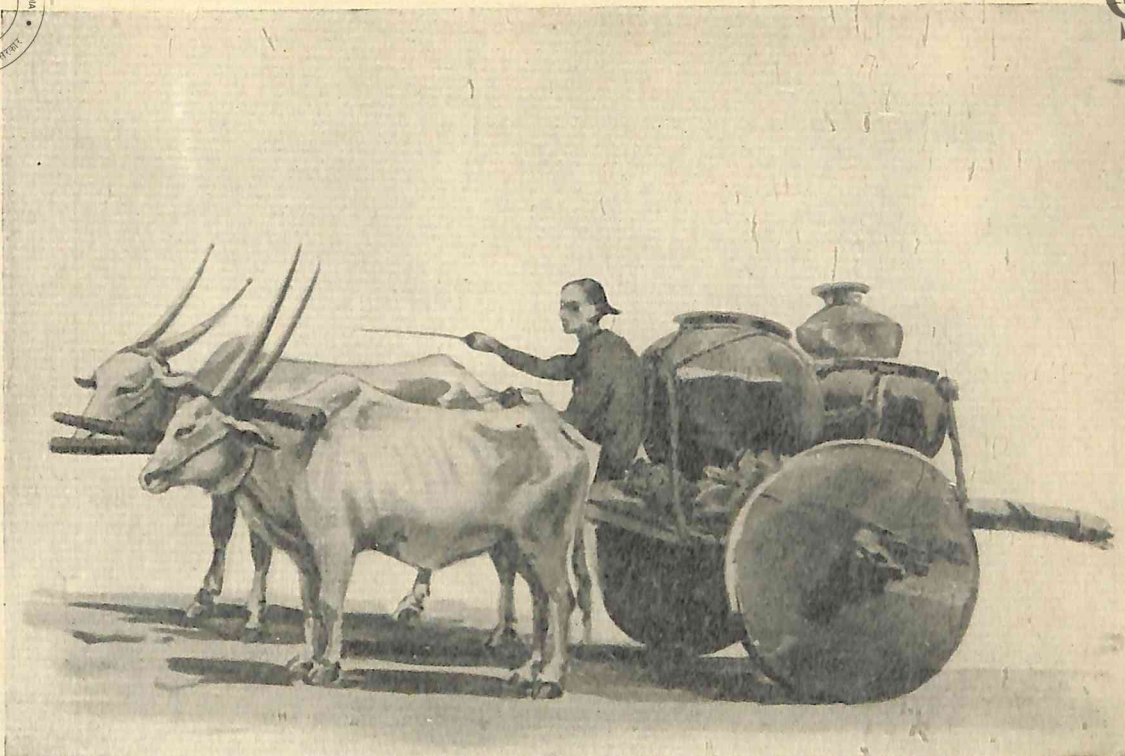


itself is valuable because preparations made from it are used by doctors in order to deaden pain. Another Indian plant which is important in medicine is the **cinchona**. From its bark is extracted quinine, which is the best remedy for the malarial fevers which are often so rife in lowland countries in the Tropics. The plant originally came from South America, but it was introduced into India in 1860, the first plantation being established by the Government in the Nilgiri Hills. To-day it is grown in many parts of Southern India, and especially in Ceylon. The coastal plains of the Southern Deccan and the shores of Ceylon are fringed with **coco-nut** palms (see picture 24). Their fruit has many uses. It can not only be used for food, but its dried kernels, called copra, are exported to help make margarine, soap, and many other products. Coco-nut oil is also useful, and the fibre, called coir, which encloses the husk of the nut, can be employed in making matting, brushes, ropes, etc. India has many other valuable trees, besides the various types of palm; chief are the **sal** and the **teak**; the former grows along the foot of the Himalayas in a belt of forest called the Terai, and in the Chutia Nagpur highlands east of the Son; while the teak needs a climate where the winters are warmer, and is therefore found on the southern part of the Western Ghats, and particularly in Burma (see picture 25). Teak is one of the hardest known woods, and is used particularly in shipbuilding. **Sandalwood**, a small evergreen tree, has a beautiful fragrance and is used for making perfumes and incense. It grows particularly in the southern part of the Western Ghats. On the slopes of the Himalayas there are forests of **deodar**, an evergreen tree which bears cones. **Ebony**, a beautiful black wood, is another native of India, while **bamboos** are to be found in many parts of the country also. Nearly a quarter of the surface of India is covered with forests, and in order to ensure that the trees are not unduly destroyed by timber cutters or charcoal burners, or to make room for cultivation, the British Government has set up a special Forest Department. Its officials have to undergo a thorough training in forestry, and it is their duty to see that a supply of timber is conserved.

## V. ANIMALS.

All over India cattle are employed to draw carts and ploughs (see pictures 19, 26, and 39). Horses are reared in some parts of the country, but they are used chiefly for riding. To carry goods across the high passes of the Himalayas use is made of **yaks**, a kind of ox with a silky,

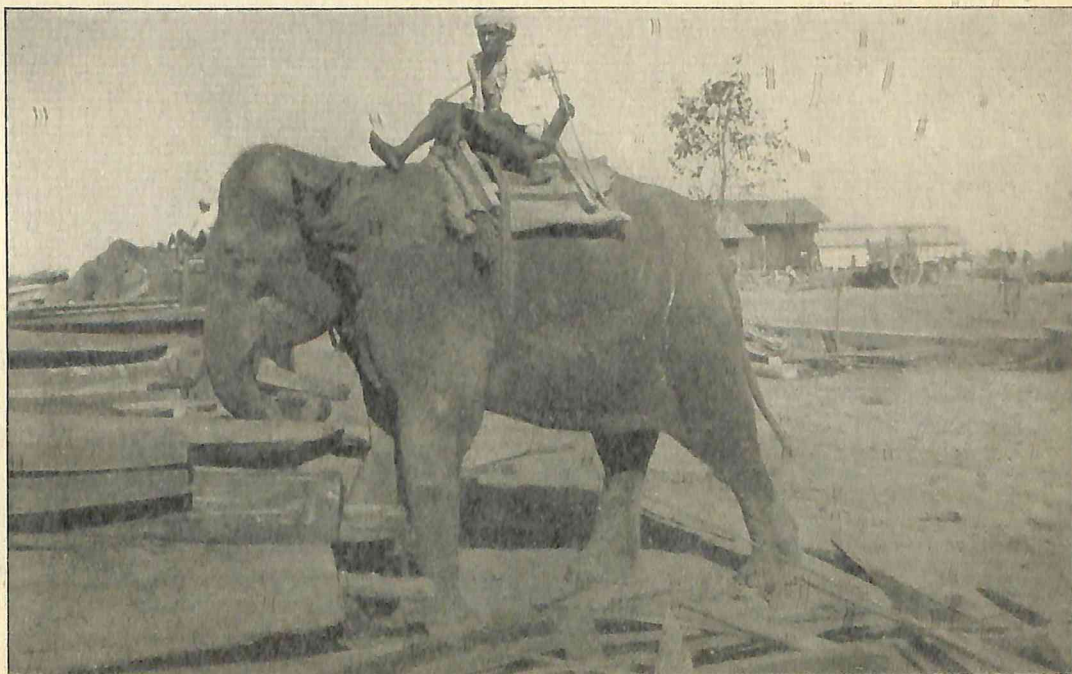




No. 26.

#### A WATER-CART, SOUTHERN INDIA.

The water-seller is an important person in India. He brings the water from a spring, either in a roughly-made cart, as shown here, or else in two large brass vessels slung from the ends of a pole which he balances on his shoulder. The *dhistee*, or Muhammedan water-carrier, sells water only to people of his own faith. He brings it in a skin, often slung across the back of a bullock (see picture 39).



No. 27.

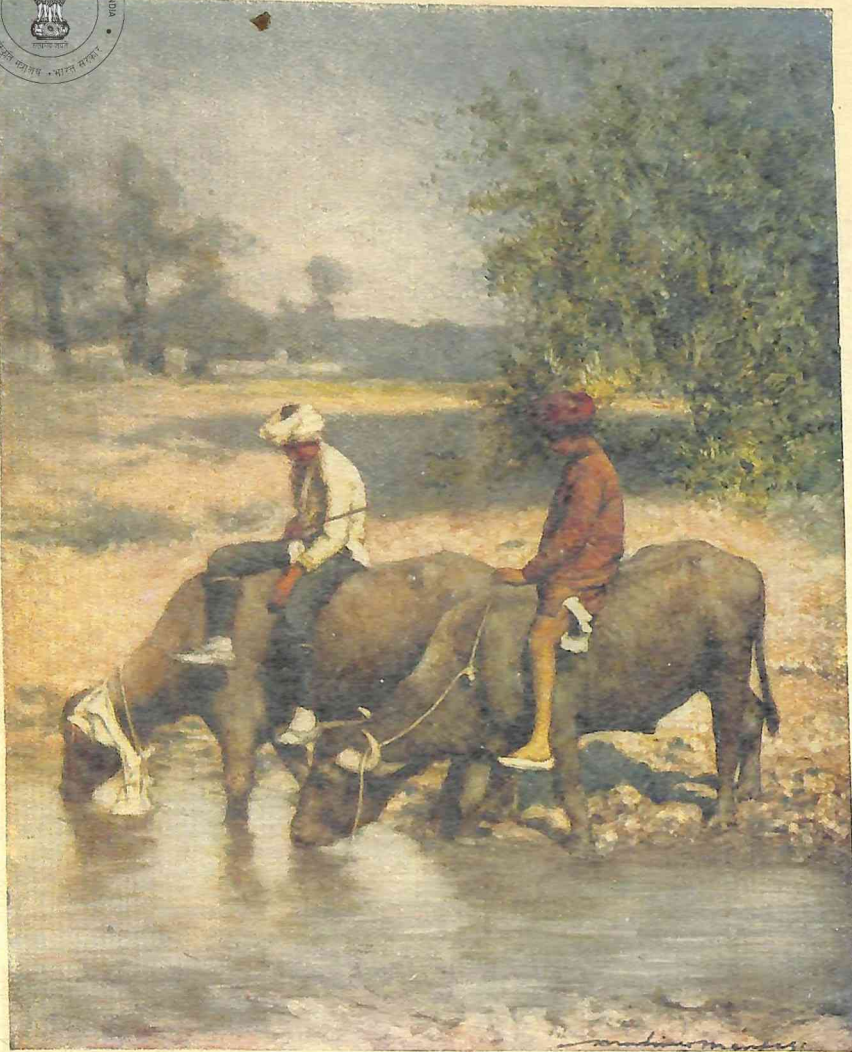
#### TIMBER-YARD ELEPHANTS.

(From "The Romantic East," by Walter Del Mar.)

Photo by W. W. Schumacher.

Refer to picture 25. This illustration shows an elephant carrying teak in a timber-yard. The tree-trunks are made up into huge rafts, and are allowed to drift down the Irawadi to Rangoon, which stands at the mouth of the river. There they are sawn up and stacked in piles ready for export.





No. 28. WATERING CATTLE.

Oxen are often used to help in irrigating their master's fields (see page 18). They are harnessed to a rope attached to a skin which is let down into the water. It is hauled up by the oxen and the water emptied out into a channel which runs to the field. Then the skin is let down once more to be pulled up again by the oxen; and so the work goes on all day long.



No. 29. TIGERS AND ELEPHANTS IN THE JUNGLE.

The tiger is the most dreaded of all Indian animals. Often one will take up his quarters near a village and steal the ryots' cattle one after another. Even more terrible is the man-eating tiger, who sometimes haunts the neighbourhood and carries off anyone whom he can catch unawares and unarmed.





shaggy coat. There is a picture of them on page 6. In Burma, and in parts of India also, much of the work is done by elephants who, as can be gathered from pictures 25 and 27, have been trained to use their strength in the service of their masters. The elephant is specially useful in regions where there are no proper roads, for it can make its way over open country and through marshes and jungles which could be crossed by no other beast of burden. Throughout India also there are many wild animals, some of which are dangerous. In the jungles tigers and leopards are found, as well as crocodiles and all kinds of venomous snakes. Every year the death of many people and thousands of cattle is caused by creatures such as these, and rewards are therefore offered by the Government for the destruction of dangerous animals.

Tiger-hunting is an exciting Indian sport (see picture 13 on page 15). There are various ways in which this is carried on. For example, the hunter may build a little platform, called a *machan*, near a pool or water-hole where the tiger comes to drink, and wait there watching for his prey all through the night; or else a party of sportsmen hunts the tiger on elephants, which crash their way through the jungle and drive the tiger before them. Another Indian sport is "pig-sticking," or hunting the wild boar. He is pursued by men on horseback armed with spears, and he defends himself by charging his adversaries with his sharp tusks. Elephants are usually captured alive so that they may be tamed. A huge enclosure, known as a *kheddah*, is built in the jungle. It has a funnel-shaped entrance opening outwards into the forest, and into the broad end of this a herd of elephants is driven by beaters. When the animals are safely inside the *kheddah* a gate is dropped across the narrow end of the entrance, and so the herd is trapped. After this the work of breaking-in begins. With the help of some already tamed elephants a wild animal is pushed towards a tree, where he is lassoed and fastened up. Then he is petted and given pleasant things to eat, until he has become accustomed to the sight and sound of his captors. After a week or two the taming process is nearly complete, and he is set loose and led away between two tame companions. Steps have been taken by the Government to prevent elephants in India and Burma from being killed off and perhaps exterminated. The catching of these animals is also carried on under Government supervision, the chief establishment for this purpose being in southern Burma.

The birds of India are of many kinds, and some of them are familiar to Europeans; but for the most part they tend to be more noticeable for the



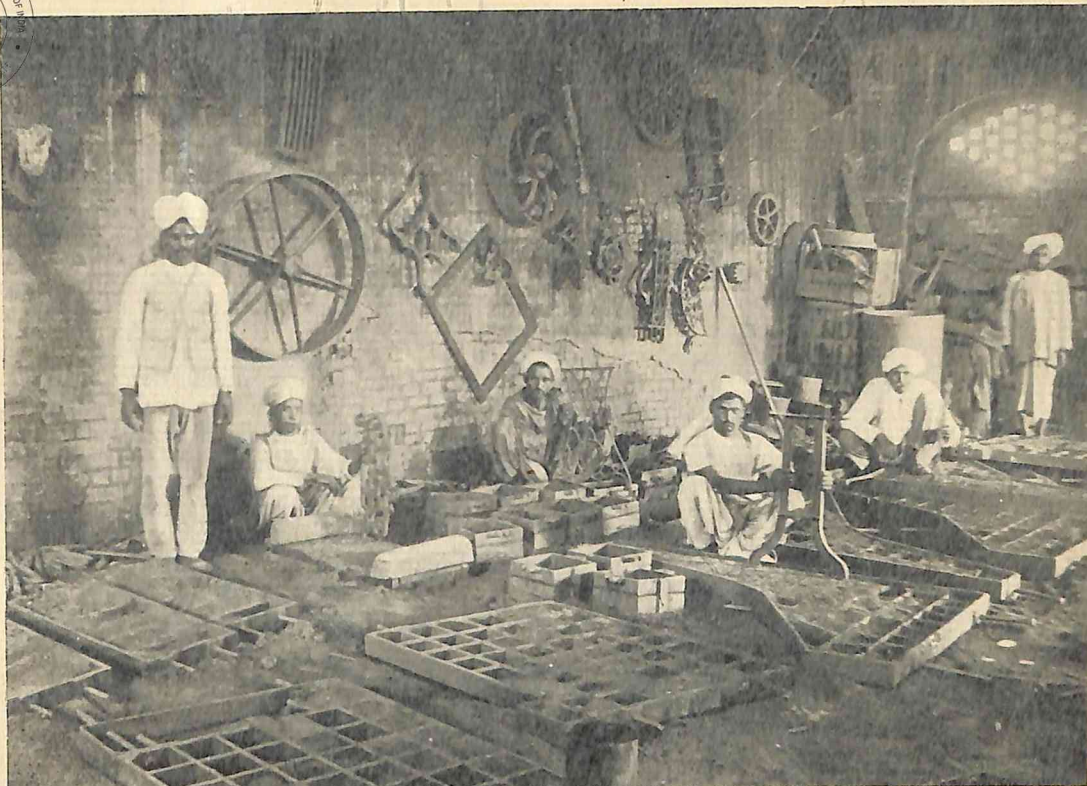
brilliance of their plumage than for the beauty of their song. Among them may be mentioned the tiny sun-birds which flash with a metallic lustre as they fly, the gorgeous peacocks and jungle-fowl, the golden orioles, and various gaudily-coloured birds of the parrot tribe.

India abounds also in insects. There are innumerable kinds of butterflies and moths, some of which are of large size and are beautifully coloured. Mosquitoes are found in most of the low-lying regions. As in many other parts of the world, they are responsible for conveying to human beings the dreaded fever known as malaria, for which quinine (see page 28) is given as a preventive. But by draining or covering up the marshes in which the mosquitoes breed, the Government is trying to stamp out this disease.

## VI. MINERALS AND MANUFACTURES.

It can be gathered from what was said on pages 21 to 28 that India has very many vegetable products, and that most of her commercial prosperity is due to them. She is not quite so well provided with minerals. She has coal fields stretching over western Bengal and the north-east of the Deccan; but part of this district has been only partially explored because it is covered with thick jungle, and inhabited by wild animals, and almost uncivilised tribes. However, the eastern end of the coalfield is more easily worked, and Raniganj and Jherria, to the west of the Ganges delta, are important mining centres. Much of the coal is sent to Calcutta, where it is used in the jute factories which were mentioned on page 25. Iron ore is found all over India, and is smelted with charcoal by the people to make implements of all kinds; but it is not worked to any considerable extent because the coal and iron are not, as in the British Isles, usually found near each other, and even so the native Indian coal is not very suitable for smelting. Moreover, the limestone which is necessary as a flux has usually to be brought from some considerable distance. In several parts of India, especially in the Central Provinces, a valuable metal called manganese is mined. It is used in making various kinds of steel, and also can be alloyed with other metals, such as copper, to toughen and strengthen them. The working of manganese was begun only of recent years in India, but it is becoming quite an important product. Gold is found in the Nilgiri Hills, and copper in the Himalayas and elsewhere; but on the whole the metals of India are at present largely undeveloped. Although silver is used for the coinage of India it is not found in the country, and



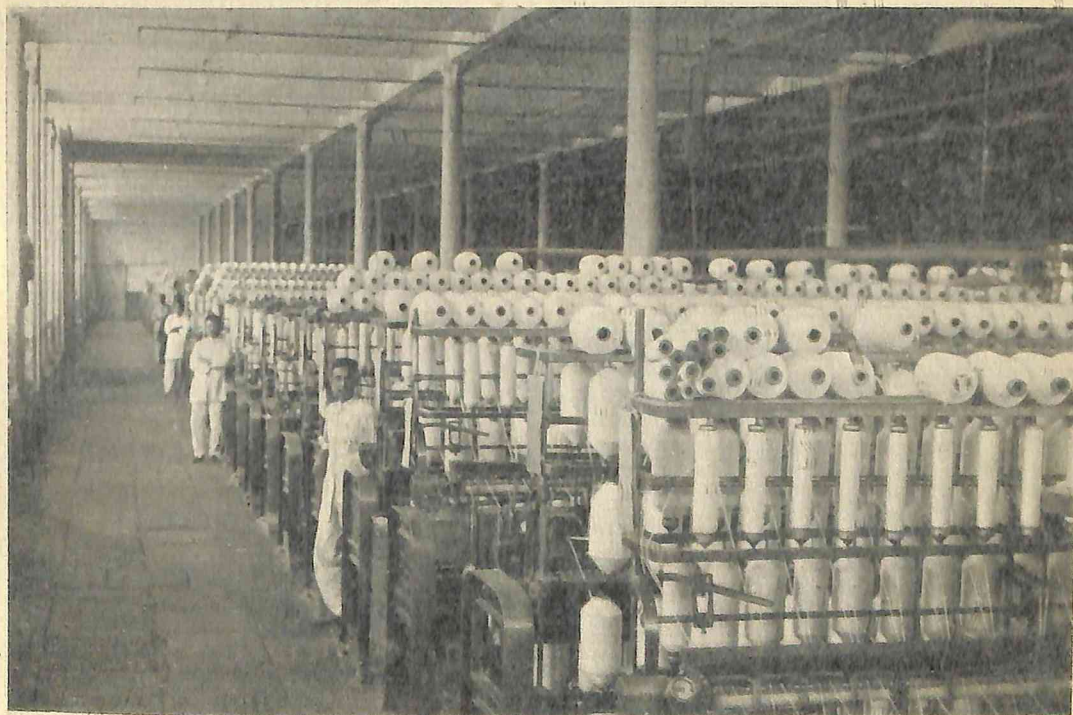


No. 30.

AN INDIAN IRON-FOUNDRY.

(By permission of Somerset Playne, Esq., F.R.G.S.)

Although iron is plentiful in India—especially in the centre and south—the working of this metal on a large scale is hampered by lack of suitable fuel. For this reason India has to depend largely on imported iron from Europe.



No. 31.

INTERIOR OF AN INDIAN COTTON MILL.

(By permission of Somerset Playne, Esq., F.R.G.S.)

This picture shows the "carding" room, in which the cotton fibres are straightened out, combed, and cleaned by machinery. By this means the raw cotton is made into a thin tape called a sliver. It has to undergo several other processes before it can be spun into thread.





No. 32. A RAJPUT.

The Rajputs are the oldest of the Aryan races of India. They are extremely proud of their descent, for they claim to be the Kshatrya or warrior caste, as distinct from the priestly caste—the Brahmins. They live mainly in Rajputana, but Rajput races are found also in other parts of Northern India.



No. 33. A TAMIL GIRL.

The Tamils are found in the extreme south-east of India and in northern Ceylon. The girl in the picture is dressed for a visit. She is wearing a silk robe, nose and ear ornaments, and flowers in her hair.





all the necessary supplies have to be imported. Indian workmen have shown great skill and taste in making hand-wrought articles of gold, silver, copper or brass. They have long been famous for their work, but unfortunately this industry has been harmed by the import of machine-made goods from Europe. Other native Indian handicrafts also, such as cotton and silk weaving, shawl and carpet making, and the manufacture by hand of pottery and glass, have suffered by competition of similar goods which were made in the factories of the great industrial countries of Europe. Nevertheless, as we have seen, cotton, silk, and jute factories have been started in India itself, and although she must always be chiefly an agricultural country, she will doubtless develop her manufactures as time goes on.

Salt is a very valuable mineral in India—as indeed is usually the case in countries where many of the inhabitants live practically, if not entirely, upon vegetable food. It is obtained by evaporation from sea-water at many places round the coast, especially along the Bay of Bengal. In Rajputana, also, on the edge of the Thar Desert, there are some salt lakes; round the banks there is a deposit of white glistening salt, while in the middle the salt takes on a rosy-pink hue. The whole combines to form a very beautiful picture in the brilliant sunshine. Still more valuable are the Salt Hills of the Panjab. Here rock-salt is quarried, and some of the mines are said to be the largest of their kind in the world. They have been worked ever since the days of Akbar—*i.e.* for three and a half centuries—but they are still wonderfully productive. Much of their salt is sent on camel-back over the north-western frontier of India, and into Afghanistan and the neighbouring countries. In spite of the numerous supplies of salt which India possesses, they do not suffice for her needs, and she has to import large quantities of this mineral in addition. Salt has a special importance in India because a tax is imposed upon it, and thus the trade in it furnishes a source of revenue to the Government.

## VII. PEOPLES AND RELIGIONS.

The people of the various parts of India—like the physical features or climate of the country—show many contrasts. They differ widely in appearance, in colour, and in the state of civilisation to which they have attained. Roughly speaking the peoples of India are derived from three main races: the **Aryans** who live mainly in the Indo-Gangetic Plain, the **Dravidians** who live in the Deccan, and races of **Mongolian** origin akin to



the Chinese who are found in Burma, in Ceylon, and along the lower slopes of the Himalayas in North-East India.

The Aryans are descended from tribes who at various times, in the far distant past, came into Northern India from Central Asia through the passes of the North-West. They were a strong and manly race, and they gained possession of most of the basin of the Indus and Ganges, and even penetrated into the Deccan. Their descendants in the hotter and damper parts of the country in which they settled (*e.g.* Bengal) have, in the course of ages, lost some of their soldierly qualities; but in North-Western India there are Aryan races, such as the Rajputs (see picture 32), who are still proud and strong and brave. For untold generations these races have been nations of soldiers, and they still form a most important part of the Indian army.

The Dravidian peoples occupy the greater part of the Deccan—especially the east and south. They were settled in India long before the Aryan races invaded the country, and were driven into the peninsula part of India. On the whole, these peoples are different in appearance from the Aryans; their colouring is darker, and as a rule they are of smaller stature. Their chief races are the Gonds who live between the Narbada and the Tapti, the Telegus in Central and Eastern Deccan, the Bhils of Central India, and the Tamils of the south. In the wilder parts of the country there are remnants also of tribes, such as the Kols and the Santals, which are, perhaps, even older than the Dravidians; but these peoples live mainly in almost impenetrable jungles, and are still in an extremely backward state.

The third great division is represented by the people of Burma and the native Sinhalese of Ceylon. As has been said, they are of Mongolian origin and akin to the inhabitants of Tibet and China. They tend to have yellowish skins, flattened noses, and high cheek-bones.

These, then, are the three main races of people of India, but inter-marriage has taken place to some extent from time to time, and it is often very difficult to decide to what race a particular man belongs. Again, there are the descendants of peoples who have invaded the country in historic times, or have for various reasons settled on the sea-coast—*e.g.* the Parsees who—as their name shows—originally came from Persia and who now live mainly in Bombay; the Arabs, who used to trade especially with the west side of India; and various European invaders, such as the Portuguese and French. All over the country also there are Englishmen who live there chiefly in order to carry on the government of the country, but who do not, as a rule, settle down in India. It is said that the English in India form less





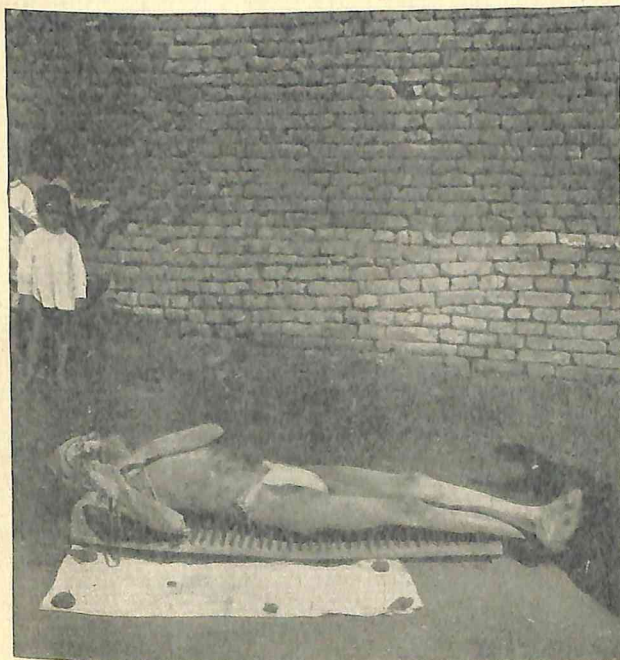
*Photo by Clifton & Co.*

No. 34.

# TOWER OF SILENCE, BOMBAY.

*(By permission of Somerset Playne, Esq., F.R.G.S.)*

The Parsees do not bury or burn the bodies of their dead. Instead they are exposed on a kind of huge gridiron at the top of a tower, such as that shown in the picture. There the corpses are left to be devoured by vultures, and the bones fall between the bars of the gridiron to the bottom of the tower.



*Underwood & Underwood.*

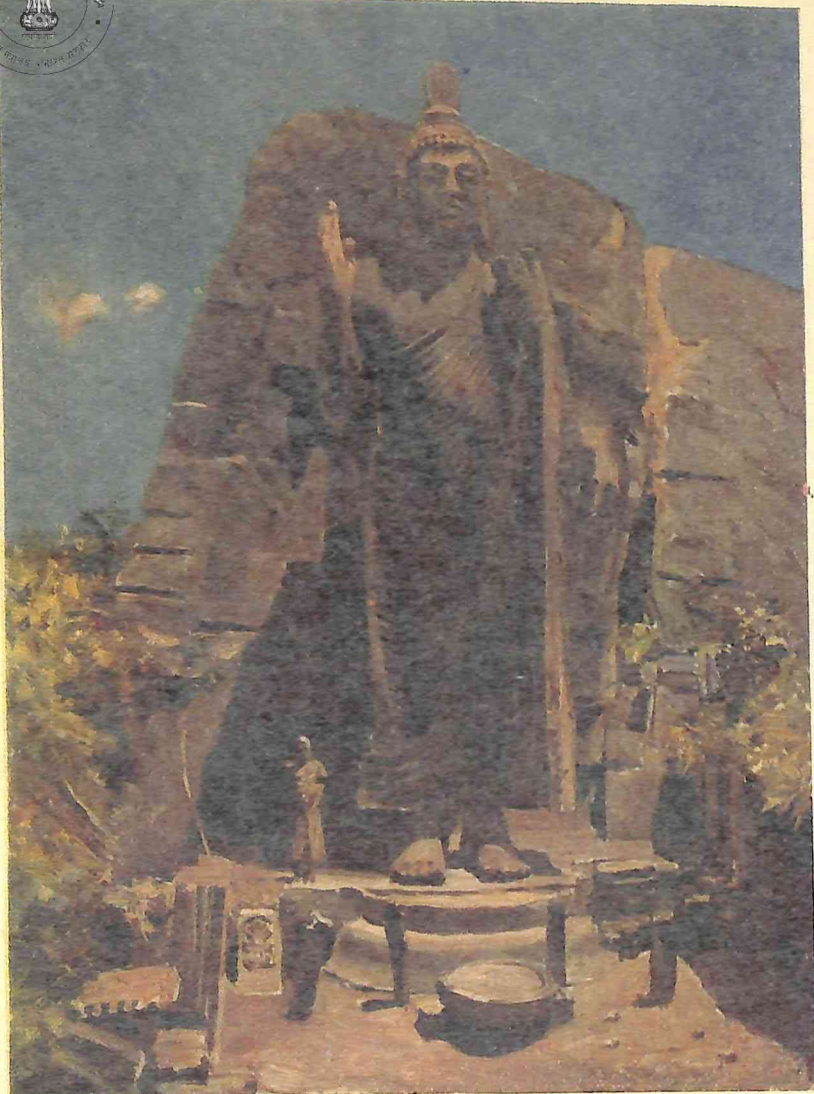


No. 35.

# FAKIRS.

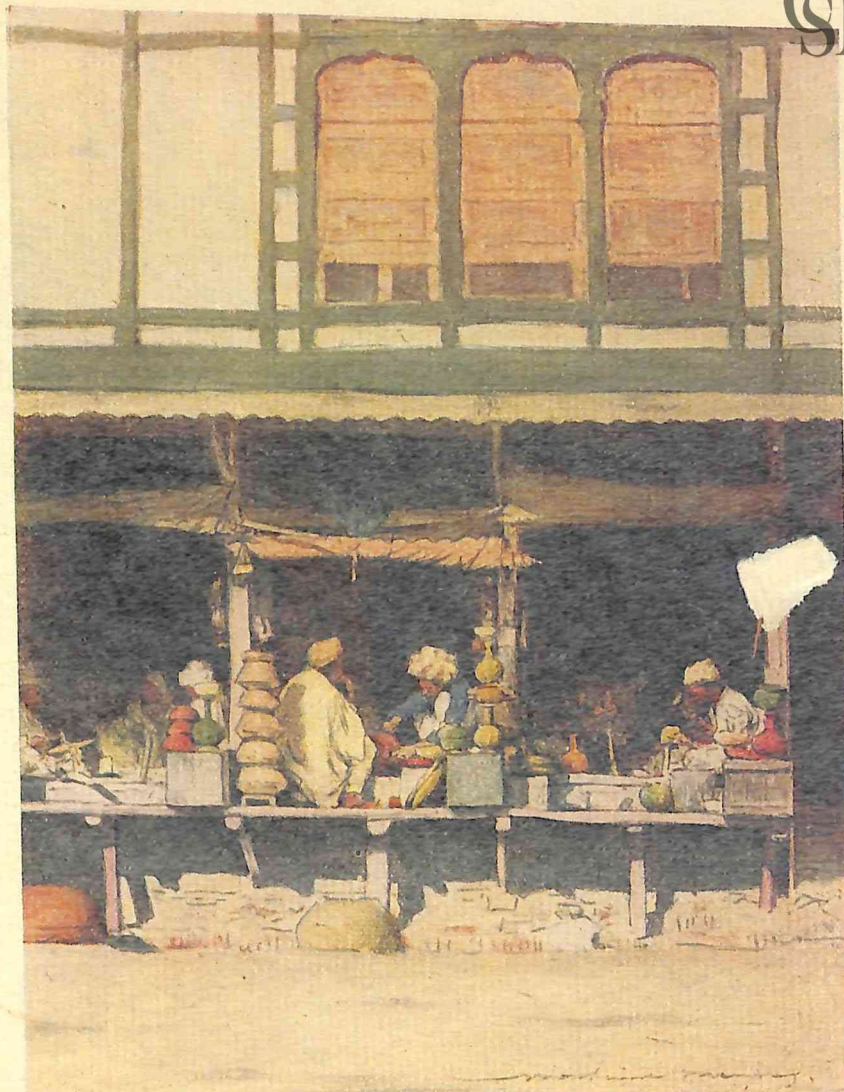
It has been estimated that as many as 15 per cent. of the population of India belong to the class of religious mendicants—although, of course, they do not all practise self-torture. Many, doubtless, do not belong to the highest intellectual class, but all alike have achieved a wonderful power of self-control and, like the Christian ascetics, they have embraced voluntary poverty and self-mortification in the hope of thereby being able to live a fuller spiritual life.





No. 36. A STATUE OF BUDDHA.

In the north-west of Ceylon there are ruins of great cities which existed many centuries ago, but in the course of ages have become covered with earth and vegetation. In recent years the British Government has caused many of them to be excavated. The huge statue of Buddha, shown in this picture, is in one of these ancient cities.



No. 37. AN INDIAN SHOP.

Refer to page 45. This picture shows the shop of a *kobariya* or dealer in odds and ends. He sells iron and brass vessels, metal images, old lamps, disused crockery and cutlery, old clothes and books—in fact every conceivable kind of second-hand goods.





than one-hundredth of the total population. There are also people of mixed origin, who are partly of Indian and partly of European parentage. They are called Anglo-Indians.

The various races which go to make up the Indian people have not amalgamated to form one nation in the same way as did the Saxons, Danes, and Normans, who united to form the English people. For one reason, India is a much larger place than the British Isles, and the contrasts between her peoples are much greater than those between the races from which the English nation was formed. But in addition to her divisions of race, India is split up by divisions of class and of religion. The people of the greater part of the country follow a religion called **Hinduism**, which is taught by priests known as Brahmins. Hindus are divided into many different classes or **castes**, each, as a rule, being concerned in some particular occupation which is handed on from father to son. The members of a caste bear a common name and claim descent from a common ancestor. They may not inter-marry nor even eat with those who belong to a different caste. It is not a question of possessions or rank. The highest caste includes beggars who live a life of hardship and poverty, while the lowest and most despised caste may number among its members men of wealth and position. In fact, membership of a particular caste has the greatest influence over the lives of those who belong to it. It regulates almost every action and distinguishes one man from another, to an extent which can hardly be realised by people who live in a country where this institution does not exist. Thus Hinduism itself tends rather to separate than to unite the people who profess it; and since nearly three-quarters of the people of India are Hindus, it can be seen that there are difficulties in the way of making the country into a really united nation.

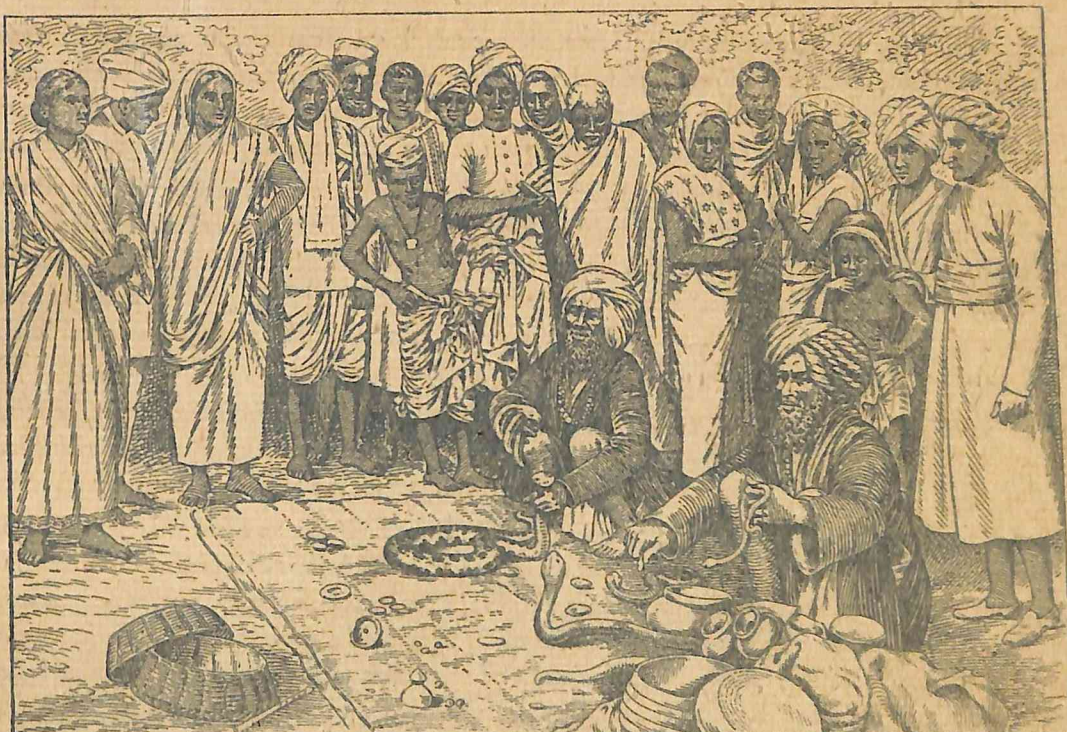
All over India can be found religious mendicants or beggars, who are called **fakirs**. Many of them belong to the highest caste—that of the Brahmins—and they have abandoned everything in order to wander from place to place, living on the alms which the faithful give them. To refuse to give them food when they ask for it would be regarded as a sin, and therefore the people usually give to them freely. Some of them are highly educated men who believe that the more they can subdue the needs of the body the nearer they will get to things divine. Some also practise self-torture in order to discipline themselves. One, for example, will hold an arm above the head for so long that it grows shrunken and immovable; another will lie down on a bed of spikes or walk barefooted over heated stones. There are two pictures of fakirs on page 37.



Next in numbers to the Hindus come those who hold the **Muhammedan** religion; they are found chiefly in the north-west of India and in Bengal. Their religion was introduced into the country by invaders who, during the Middle Ages, overran the Indo-Gangetic Plain. In Burma and Ceylon we find **Buddhists**. Their religion was founded by a man usually known as Buddha or Gautama, who lived in the sixth century B.C. He was a Hindu prince, but to-day his religion is but little found in India itself. None the less, it has spread throughout China and over many parts of Central and Eastern Asia; it is said that as much as one-third of the whole human race are Buddhists.

Another Indian religion is **Jainism**, the adherents of which are found mainly in Western India. They have so great a reverence for animal life, that when the Government was trying to stamp out malaria, the Jains strongly objected to killing the mosquitoes by which the infection of the disease is carried. In some ways their religion is rather like that of the Buddhists. The **Sikhs**, again, have a distinct religion of their own. It is in some ways allied to Hinduism, but rejects many of its legends and superstitions as well as the caste system. It lays great stress on military virtues, and thus, as has been said, the Sikhs have always been a race of warriors. They have their own sacred book called the *Granth*, a copy of which is carried in front of Sikh regiments. The **Parsees** also, although small in numbers, have a religion different from that of the people among whom they live; fire is their sacred emblem, and instead of burying or burning their dead they expose the bodies on "towers of silence," where they are left for the vultures to feed on. The Parsee men can always be distinguished by the high shiny hat, shaped like a cow's foot, which they wear. They are a rich race, for they are clever bankers and money-lenders, and the Parsee women are splendidly dressed and move about freely in the streets. Every evening many Parsees may be seen on the shores near Bombay, reciting their prayers in the presence of the setting sun. The **Christians** in India are largely of European origin, but there are also a number of native converts. They are found more particularly in Southern India, and many of them are Roman Catholics. Some are descended from converts made by the Portuguese missionaries, such as St Francis Xavier, who laboured here during the sixteenth century; and some even claim to be the successors of the followers of St Thomas, who is said to have preached in India in the early days of Christianity. At the same time the Christians in India form only a small portion of the total population.





No. 38.

INDIAN SNAKE CHARMERS. (Refer to page 46.)

## VIII. AN INDIAN VILLAGE.

As we have already seen India is a very fertile country, and thus she can supply food for a large number of people. Roughly speaking, the population is densest in those parts which receive most rain and are therefore able to grow most crops—*i.e.* especially in the Ganges Plain. By far the majority of the people live by cultivating the land. Their methods of cultivation are, as a rule, rather primitive; they use light wooden ploughs which merely scratch the surface of the ground, and in some parts of India sufficient manure is not very easy to obtain. Thus, in spite of the heat and the rains and the natural fertility of the soil in some parts, the Indian crops are not so abundant as they might be if more modern methods of cultivation were introduced. But the Indian peasant—or ryot, as he is called—is content with very little, and he prefers to carry on his agriculture by the simple methods that his forefathers for centuries past have used. All the same, he is usually very poor. An Indian village is merely a collection of mud huts thatched with straw, often surrounded by a wall or stockade to keep out tigers from the neigh-

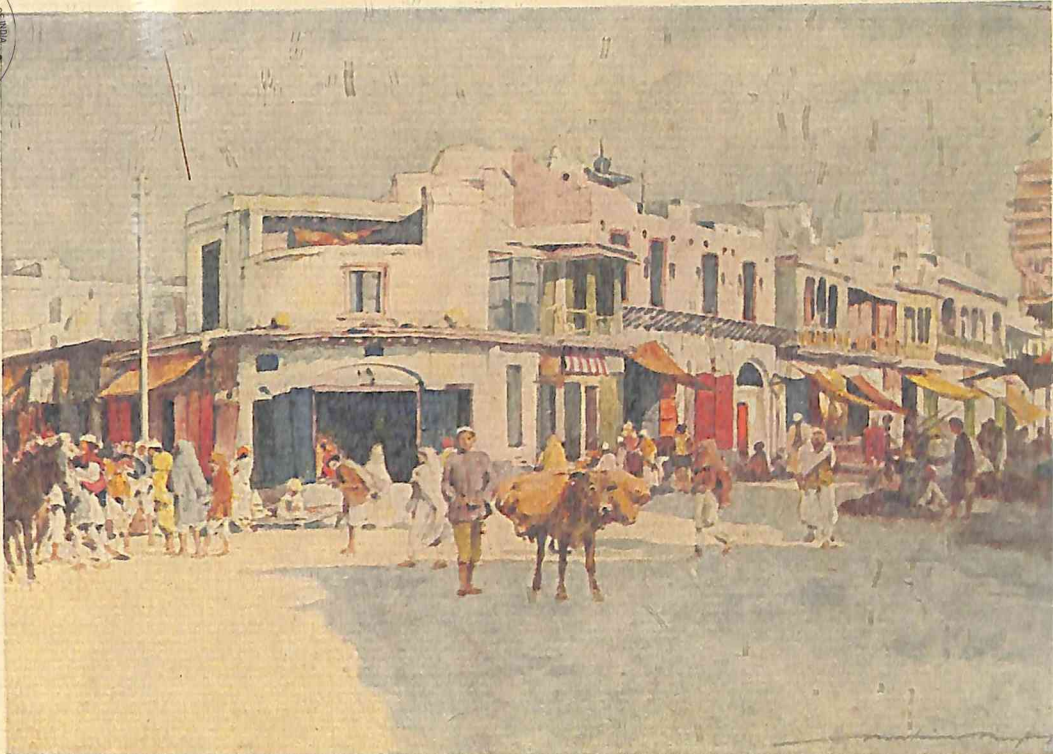




bouring jungle; while outside are the fields in which the ryots labour. The ryot lives mainly—if not wholly—on vegetable food, which he seasons with salt or spices or sugar. His clothes are usually of cotton, often brightly coloured, but when he is at work in the fields he usually wears nothing but a loin-cloth and a turban to protect his head from the sun (turn back to picture 19). His only holiday is when a *mela* or fair is held at the nearest town. To it the village folk flock from far and near, some on foot and some in carts drawn by bullocks. A *mela* is usually held on the occasion of some religious festival, but when the religious duties are over the rest of the day is spent in merry-making. Often there are dances to commemorate some religious or historical event, and conjurers and acrobats of all kinds give their performances. Indian jugglers are noted all over the world for their cleverness, for some of their tricks seem almost miraculous. For example, one of them will plant a mango seed in a pot full of dry earth which is covered with a cloth. After a few minutes the covering is removed and a tiny shoot is seen; the covering is then replaced, but after a short interval it is again taken off and a growing plant revealed. The process is repeated, until at the end of about twenty minutes a mango tree, two feet high, complete with branches, leaves, and flowers, is disclosed. Another marvellous trick is to throw an ordinary rope into the air, where it remains firm and straight, as if it were hanging from some support, and it remains so while a boy climbs up it. Then the juggler throws the end of the rope up to the boy, who, together with the rope itself, seems to disappear from sight; and while the amazed onlookers are staring up to see what has happened, the boy re-appears on the ground a short distance away. It is almost incredible that such magical feats as these can be performed; but they are said to be apparently within the power of some Indian conjurers, and if this is so, all we can do is to admire their skill without being able in the least to understand it.

In spite of his simple life the ryot is often in debt; he lives from hand to mouth, and finds it difficult to save money in case of misfortune. But if the monsoon rains are insufficient and the crops fail, he is faced with famine and has to have recourse to a money-lender in order to buy food and pay the rent of his farm. He finds it difficult to repay the money which he has borrowed together with the interest on it, and so he gets more and more into the power of the money-lender. However, he endures misfortune and hardship with patience. It is not very easy to see how his position can be improved; perhaps the spread of education over India





No. 39.

A STREET SCENE IN DELHI.

See also picture 31 on page 55. Notice the picturesque houses with their balconies and flat roofs; the open shops with their gaily coloured shutters or awnings; the costumes of the people; the pack-ox carrying a couple of water-skins (see picture 26); the telegraph pole which seems out of keeping with the rest of the scene, but which reminds us of the part which Western inventions play in modern India.

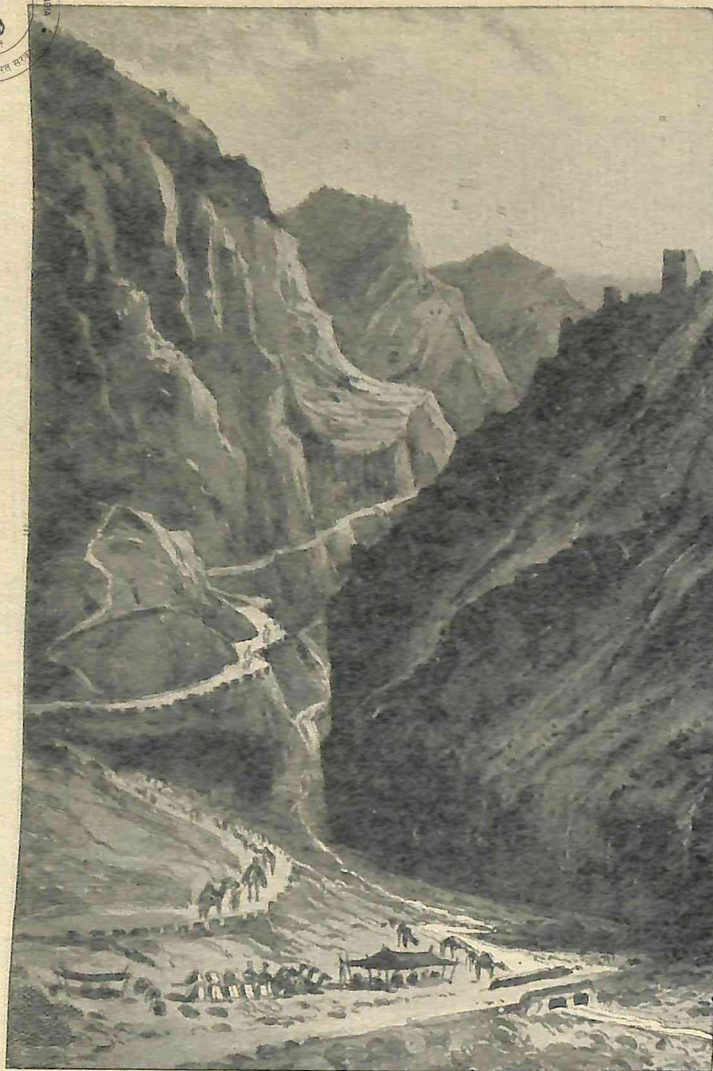


No. 40.

CANAL SCENE, SRINAGAR.

Srinagar is sometimes called the "Venice of the East." It stands on the Jehlam and is intersected by numerous canals. As the picture shows, traffic is carried on along these waterways by means of flat-bottomed boats. Notice (a) the Himalayas in the distance; (b) the vegetation growing on the house-roofs.





No. 41. THE KHAIBAR PASS.

The Khaibar Pass is about 33 miles long and only 50 feet wide in its narrowest part; on either side the mountains rise sheer to a considerable height. The military road across the Pass was constructed by the British Government.



No. 42. HILL TRIBESMEN ON THE NORTH-WEST FRONTIER.

The chief of the tribes bordering the Khaibar Pass is the Afridi, who have often fought bravely against the British. Many of these border tribes, when they have become friendly, form some of the finest regiments of the Indian Army; examples are the Pathans, the Gurkhas, the Baluchi, and the Sikhs.





will teach him to be more provident and to use better methods of agriculture. At present the Indian peasants have little opportunity for acquiring education; of the total population of the country in 1901, more than nine-tenths were unable even to read or write, but improvements have been made in recent years. Those Indians who have taken up Western learning have shown great aptitude for it; they study with great earnestness and show much ability. There are now numerous universities. A man in India who has passed examinations or obtained a university degree is considered a person of much importance.

### IX. AN INDIAN BAZAAR.

Although India is essentially an agricultural country, and most of the people are peasants who live in villages, she has none the less many large towns. Some of them—*e.g.* Bombay, Madras, and Calcutta—have become important since the English came to live in India, and these towns, as we might have expected, are accessible from the sea. But inland, and especially in the Ganges Plain, there are many cities which were large and flourishing long before the English arrived in India. Many of them contain beautiful buildings which are visited by travellers from all parts of the world. Every Indian town also has its **bazaar** or commercial quarter, in which are shops of all kinds. As a rule the shops are small, and have open fronts where there is a low platform on which the tradesman squats beside his goods, or where the craftsman does his work (see picture 37). Almost every kind of shop is represented; you can buy cheap cotton cloth made in Manchester as well as the most beautiful Indian silks or muslins wrought with gold—though the latter find few buyers nowadays. The streets are thronged. Perhaps you will notice a *bhistee*, almost naked save for a turban and a loin-cloth, who is carrying a water-skin which still keeps roughly the shape of the goat or sheep out of whose hide it was made. Through the crowd pushes an ox-cart laden with goods, while a bull from the nearest temple rambles at will along the street in search of something to eat. No one thinks of driving him away, for the bull is regarded as a sacred animal by the Hindus, and for this reason they believe that it is unlawful to eat beef; in fact, as we have already seen, many of them are vegetarians. One of the busiest shops, therefore, is that of the grain-seller or *bunniah* who also sells sour milk and clarified butter, known as *ghee*. The bazaar, however, is not only a place where goods are bought and sold, but it is the resort of newsmongers, sight-seers, and idlers of all kinds, and you can imagine



how busy a scene it presents. The brilliant sun lights up the brightly-coloured garments of the jostling crowd; the bargaining of the buyers and sellers and the gossip of the idlers fills the air; while the combined scent of the goods for sale and the sweltering crowd is quite unique. In an open space a snake-charmer may perhaps be seen playing on his pipe and making his curious pets perform their various tricks; or a conjurer is giving an entertainment such as was described in the last chapter. Altogether, a visit to an Indian bazaar is an experience that no one who has made it is likely to forget.

## X. POLITICAL GEOGRAPHY.

### (a) The North-West Frontier.

The north-west side of India touches the mountainous country of Afghanistan, which, owing to its position between British India and Asiatic Russia, is important as a "buffer" state. The ranges which shut off the Indus valley from Afghanistan are almost impassible, but there is one route—the Khaibar Pass—which leads towards Kabul (see picture 41). Along this defile a road has been constructed. The railway stops just beyond Peshawar, a military station which guards the Indian end of the route, but an extension of it through the pass is now under construction.

South of Afghanistan lies Baluchistan, part of which—the district round Quetta—is under British control. This country also is very mountainous, and parts of it have not been properly explored. The chief ways into the country are over the Bolan Pass to Quetta, and by the Mula Pass to Kalát. A line of railway has been built beyond Quetta, but many engineering difficulties had to be surmounted during its construction.

Although India is well protected by mountain barriers on the north-west, the hill tribes are often restless and tend to give trouble. They are always ready for a fight, especially if plunder is to be gained thereby; and they often raid the villages in the plains. They are strong and hardy, tending flocks and growing crops in the valleys where water is available.

### (b) Kashmir.

In the angle between the Himalayas and the Hindu Kush is the state of Kashmir. This country also includes most of the lofty Karakorum Mountains which lie north of the upper Indus valley and separate India from Eastern Turkistan. From Leh, in the east of Kashmir, a trade-route runs to Eastern Turkistan. It crosses the highest pass in the world—





No. 43.

THE MAIN STREET OF KHATMANDU.

The State of Nepal is independent and ruled by its own maharajah, although there is a British Resident (see page 64) at Khatmandu. Many of the inhabitants of Nepal are Mongolian (see page 35), and the building in the background of the picture reminds one of a Chinese pagoda. Mt. Everest, the highest mountain in the world, lies on the northern border of Nepal.

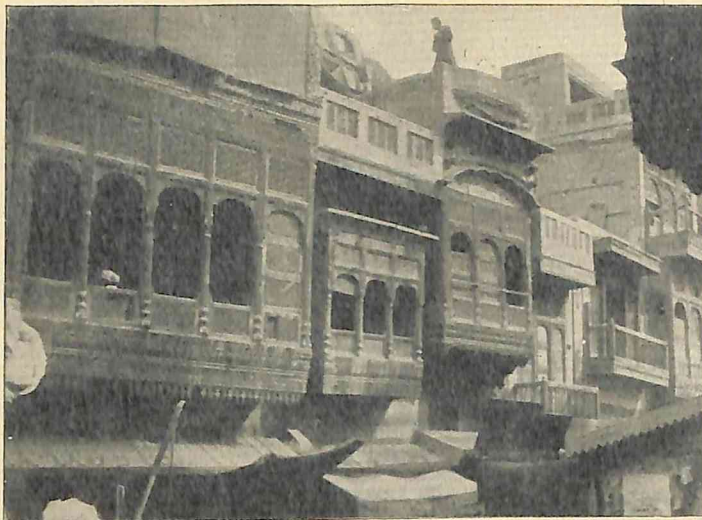


No. 44.

THE GOLDEN TEMPLE, AMRITSAR.

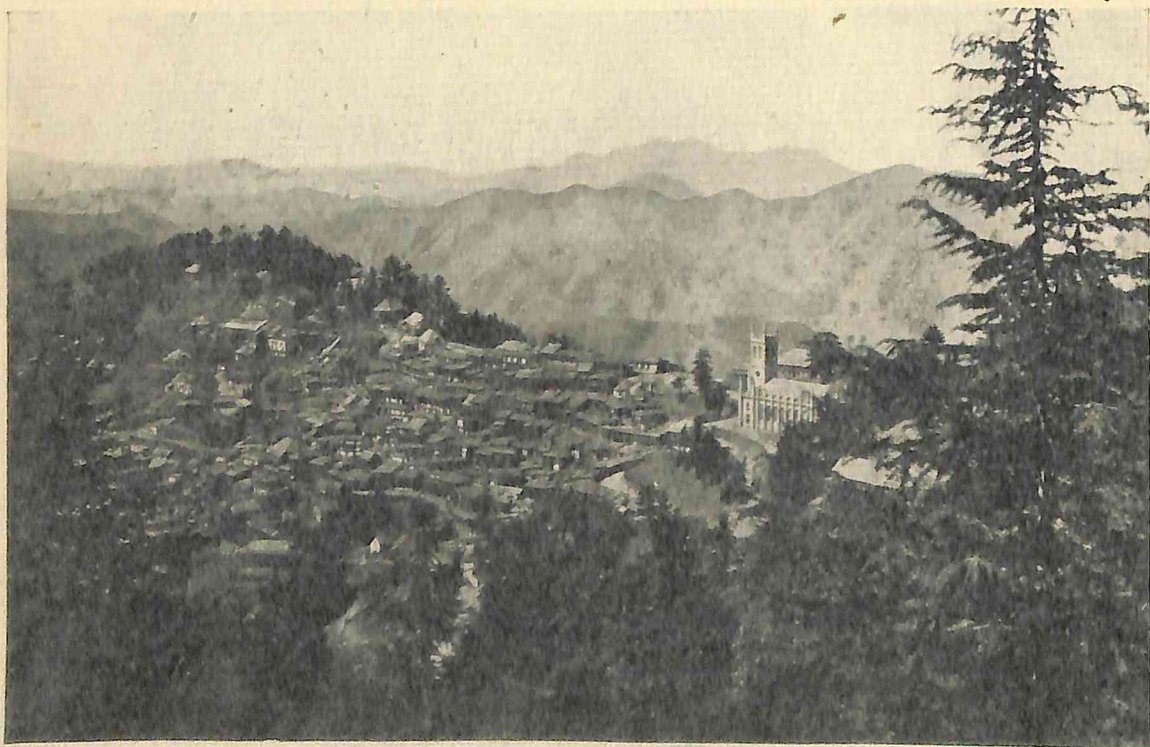
The outer walls of the temple are of inlaid marble up to a height of about 10 feet, above which they are covered with sheets of gilt copper. The building is not an ancient one for it dates only from 1851. The lake or tank in the midst of which the Temple stands is bordered by a marble pavement.





No. 45. CARVED BALCONIES, LAHORE.

The old "city" of Lahore is enclosed with a brick wall and contains many narrow and picturesque streets. The buildings in them are usually two or three storeys high and have projecting balconies, such as those shown in the picture, built of wood and elaborately carved and decorated.



No. 46. SIMLA.

*James Press Agency.*

Simla stands about 7000 feet above sea-level and is the seat of the Indian Government from the end of March to the beginning of November; its population during the summer months is more than double that of the winter. Notice (a) the conspicuous English church; (b) the distant Himalayan peaks in the background.





about  $3\frac{1}{2}$  miles above the level of the sea. The chief article of trade is a fine wool used for making "Cashmere" shawls. It is really a kind of goats' hair, which is not the animal's ordinary coat, but a fine downy under-covering which the goat grows during the cold Himalayan winter. The capital of Kashmir is **Srinagar** which stands in a beautiful valley drained by the Jehlam, a tributary of the Indus. It is an ancient city, intersected like Venice with canals, and contains the ruins of many ancient temples and palaces (refer to picture 40). The valleys of Kashmir soon become bright with flowers when the winter snows have disappeared. Wheat is grown, but rice is more common wherever water can be obtained for irrigation. There are also orchards of walnut and mulberry trees, and green meadows on which cattle are pastured.

### (c) The Himalayas.

The Himalayas, as has been said (page 7), form a natural wall between India and Tibet. They consist really of a number of parallel ranges, and their width as well as their height makes them difficult to cross. There are a few high passes over which a small amount of trade is maintained; the goods are carried by ponies, by human porters, or by a kind of mountain ox called the yak (see picture 6). The greater part of the Himalayas is covered with perpetual snow and ice, and they give rise to huge glaciers which, in their turn, form the sources of many rivers. Below the snow-line comes a region of mountain pastures bright with flowers, such as those shown on picture 12 on page 15. Next stretches a belt of forest—pines, junipers, and larches—below which the country grows more open again with trees and shrubs, such as the oak, chestnut, bramble, and raspberry, which are familiar in England. Descending into a still lower valley, we should find a region of palm and bamboo, of orchids and tree ferns, while at the base of the mountains is a dense jungle, called the Terai (see page 28), the result of the heavy rains and the intense tropical heat. This is the haunt of wild animals and venomous snakes, and the climate also makes it a very unhealthy region for human beings. On the upland valleys of the Himalayas wheat and other grains are grown, and goats and cattle can be reared, while on the lower slopes tea is cultivated.

The chief towns on the foothills of the Himalayas are **Khatmandu**, the capital of the state of Nepal and the southern end of two routes across the mountains (see picture 48); and **Darjiling**, a centre of the tea industry, and a health station where Europeans go from the plains during the hot season.



From Darjiling it is just possible to see the peak of Mount Everest, but this summit is so ringed round by other mountains that it presents a far less imposing appearance than its neighbour, Kanchanjanga, which is slightly lower than Everest itself.

(d) The Panjab.

The Panjab—or Land of Five Rivers—is watered by the middle Indus and its four chief tributaries—the Jehlam, Chenab, Ravi, and Sutlej. The rainfall of this district is not great (see page 18), but these rivers make irrigation possible, and many canals for this purpose have been constructed. Water is especially plentiful when the Himalayan snows are melting. Thus the Panjab is fertile; wheat is grown in the winter and reaped in spring, while millet is the summer crop and is harvested in the autumn. The capital of the Panjab is **Lahore**, which stands on the route from the Khaibar Pass to the Ganges Plain. It is an important military station, and the town contains an old fort which was built by the Mogul emperors. The old part of the town is enclosed with walls pierced by thirteen gates. Many of the houses are decorated with the most exquisite wood carvings (see picture 45), and their walls also are painted and decorated with gorgeous colours.

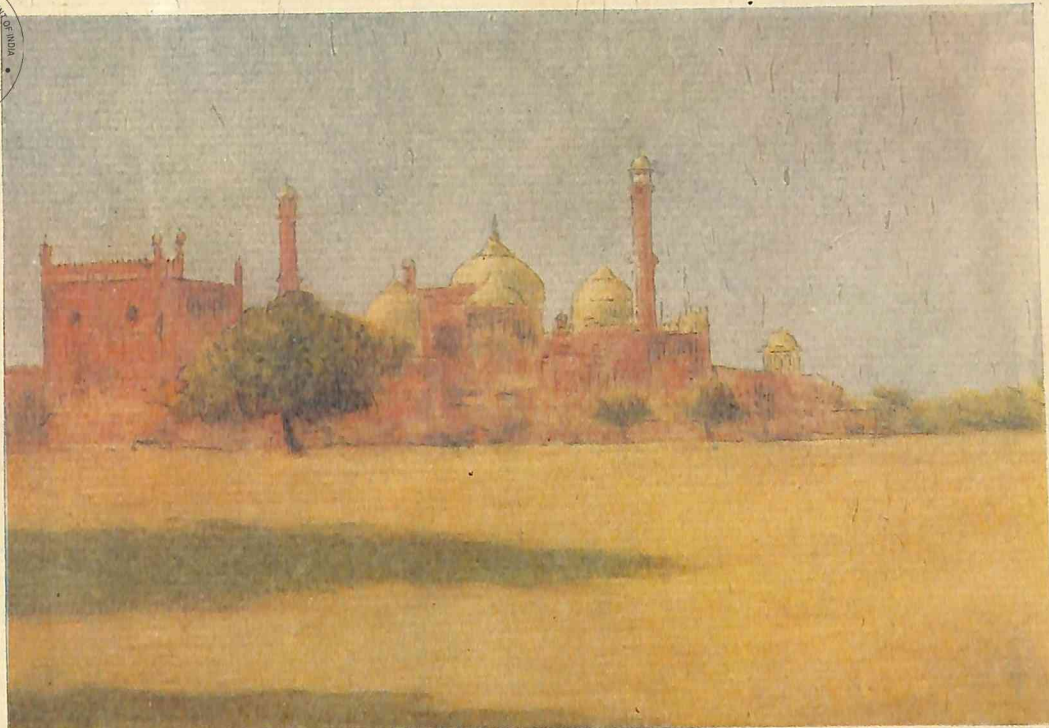
Some thirty miles from Lahore is **Amritsar**, the holy city of the Sikh religion. Near it is a lake called the Pool of Immortality, and on an island in it stands the wonderful Golden Temple which is illustrated in picture 44. It is joined to the mainland by a causeway which leads through four doors of chased silver into the Temple itself. Inside sits the priest reading the *Granth* (see p. 40), and in front of the holy book lies a cloth upon which the faithful lay their offerings of flowers or money. To the east of the Panjab lies the town of **Simla** on the foothills of the Himalayas (see picture 46). It is important because during the hot season the Viceroy and other Government officials retire to this cool hill-station to escape the burning heat of the plains. In winter Simla often lies deep in snow.

The outlet to the whole Panjab region, and the port from which its wheat is exported, is **Karachi** at the north-west side of the delta of the Indus; it is connected with Lahore by railway.

(e) Rajputana and Sind.

South of the Panjab the land grows less and less fertile. The rainfall is slight, and the Indus receives no more tributaries from the Himalayas. Near





No. 47.

THE JAMA MASJID, DELHI.

This beautiful mosque is built of red sandstone and white marble. Notice the lofty minarets from which the faithful are summoned to prayer. The Peacock Throne (see page 53) was in the form of a bedstead on golden legs with an enamelled canopy, supported by twelve emerald pillars and decorated with peacocks and trees richly encrusted with precious stones.

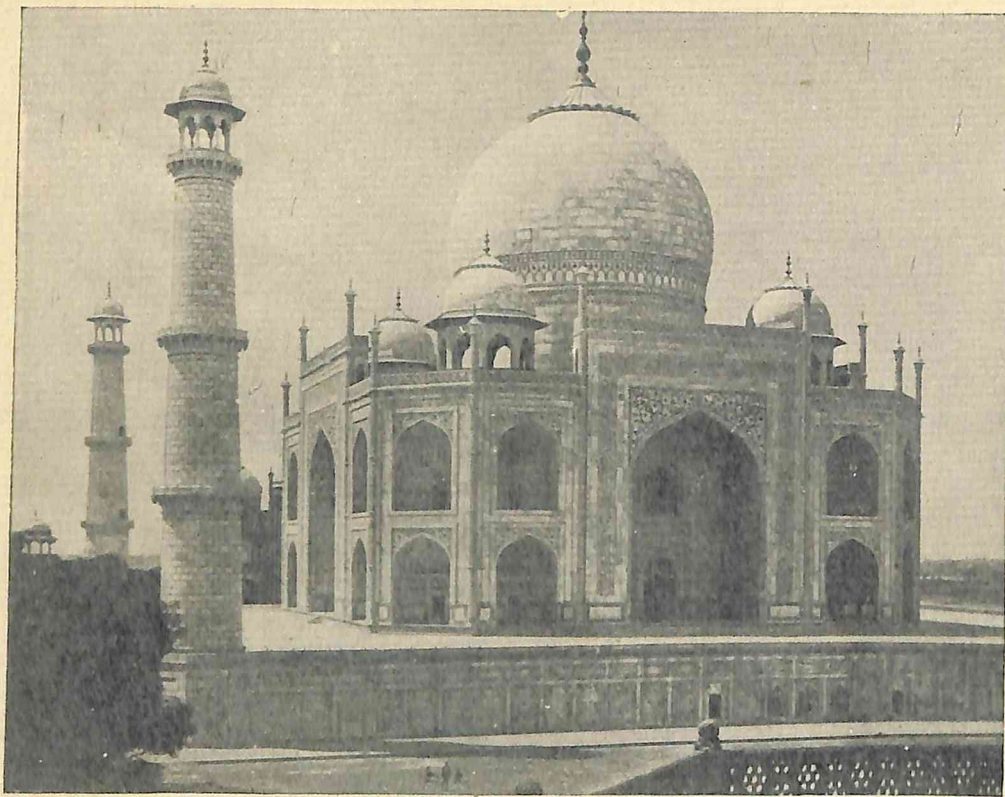


No. 48.

ON THE GANGES, BENARES.

To get the full effect of this picture it should be looked at from a distance of about 3 feet. Notice the temples which line the river banks and from which steps lead down to the sacred waters. If one remembers how infinitely important the Ganges is to the

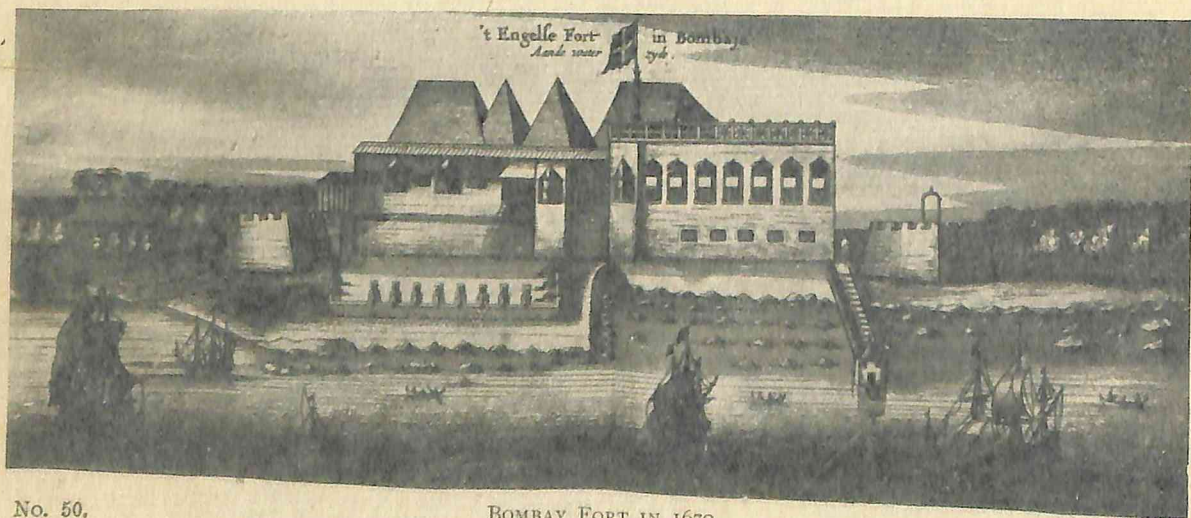




No. 49.

THE TAJ-MAHAL.

A traveller in India has said:—"The man who should describe the Taj must own genius equal to his who built it. Description halts between its mass and its fineness. It makes you giddy to look up at it, yet it is so delicate you feel that a brick would lay it in shivers at your feet. It is a rock temple and a Chinese casket together—a giant gem."



No. 50.

BOMBAY FORT IN 1670.

(By permission of Somerset Playne, Esq., F.R.G.S.)

This is the oldest view of Bombay in existence. It is taken from a description of the west coast of India, published at Amsterdam in 1672. Bombay had been given to Charles II. by the Portuguese, on the occasion of his marriage to Catherine of Braganza, and he handed it over to the East India Company; it thus gradually took the place of Surat where the earliest English trading-station had been made.





the river in Northern Rajputana and Sind there are grasslands on which cattle and horses are reared, but towards the east these grassy plains merge into the Thar Desert, a waste of wind-blown sand. The island of Cutch, south-east of the Indus delta, is also largely desert, and is separated from the mainland by a salt marsh, called the Rann of Cutch, which in the rainy season becomes a shallow sea.

#### (f) The Cities of the Ganges Plain.

As has been seen, the Ganges Plain receives abundant rainfall, and the main river itself is fed by tributaries from both banks. On the left bank come the Gogra and the Gandak, both of which rise in the Himalayas, and on the right the Jamna, which is also a Himalayan stream, together with the Son which comes from the Deccan. The districts watered by these streams are seamed with irrigation canals, and the underground water is tapped by innumerable wells. It has already been shown that an abundant supply of water is of the highest importance, for the prosperity of the country depends upon it. With the help of sufficient moisture, however, the Ganges basin is extremely fertile, and it is therefore the most densely populated part of India. It is here, too, that we shall find some of the oldest and largest cities.

Delhi, on the Jamna, was formerly the capital of the Mogul Empire which was founded in the sixteenth century by Muhammedan invaders who came through the passes of the north-west. All around the present city are ruins of former towns built by kings of old before the modern Delhi came into existence. Near the city is the famous Kutb Minar, a tower which tapers upwards and stands 240 feet above the ground. It was built about 700 years ago; but close at hand stands a still more ancient monument—a famous Iron Pillar which commemorates a Hindu victory which was won in the fourth century B.C. Delhi itself still possesses its old walls with their ten gates, and is encircled with woods and gardens. It contains the famous palace of Shah Jehan, one of the Mogul emperors, and the Jama Masjid (or “public mosque”), said to be the largest in the world (see picture 47). The palace used to contain the famous Peacock Throne, which blazed with innumerable gems; but when the city was sacked by a Persian invader in 1739, this work of art was carried off, and it now no longer exists. Many pilgrimages are made to the Jama Masjid because it contains several relics of Muhammed—amongst them a hair from his beard and one of his slippers. Delhi was the scene of the Great Durbar held in 1911, and presided over by the



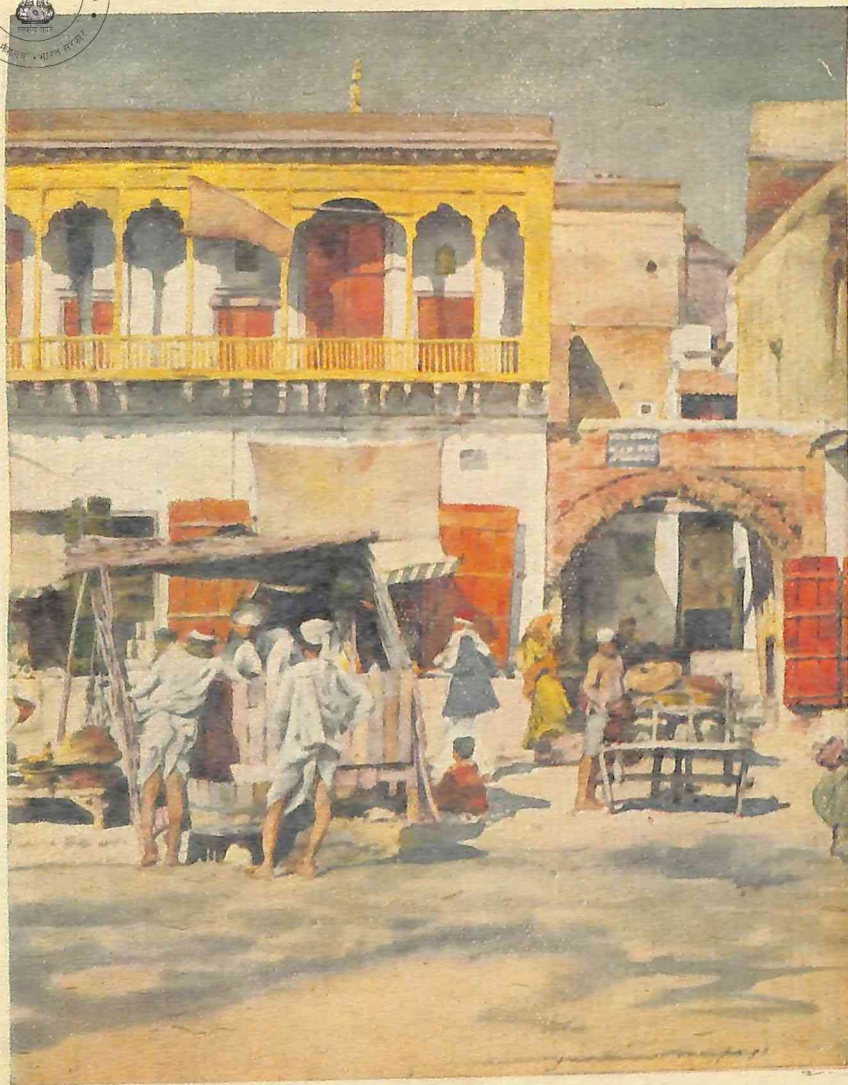
King-Emperor, George V. At this Durbar it was announced that Delhi was once more to become the capital of India.

Farther down the Jamna lies Agra, another city of great importance in the days of the Mogul Empire. It too contains many magnificent buildings, chief of which is the **Taj-Mahal**, which is one of the most beautiful works of art in the world. There is a picture of it on page 52. It is a palace of the purest white marble built over the tomb of Shah Jehan's wife. The building, which stands in the midst of a spacious garden with trees and fountains, is decorated with different coloured stones inlaid with the utmost skill. Every part of it is finished with as much care as if the craftsmen had been at work upon the setting of some small jewel instead of upon the decoration of a huge building. All round the arches are, inlaid in letters of black marble, verses of the Koran, the sacred book of the Muhammedans. It is said that the whole of this book is written in this way upon the interior walls of the Taj-Mahal. There is also a fort at Agra which contains a most beautiful palace and many other fine buildings. One of them, the **Moti Masjid**, or Pearl Mosque, though much smaller than the Taj-Mahal, is almost as perfect in its small way as the larger and more famous building. It is built of plain white marble, and therefore depends for its beauty simply upon its design and architecture, and not upon elaborate ornamentation. About six miles from Agra is the tomb of Akbar, the grandfather of Shah Jehan, and one of the wisest and greatest monarchs that have lived in India or elsewhere. The tomb itself is made of red sandstone and white marble, and stands in the midst of a beautiful garden.

Farther east are the cities of **Lucknow** and **Cawnpur**, which are associated with the Indian Mutiny. In 1857 some of the Sepoys or Indian soldiers who were in the service of the East India Company broke out into revolt in Northern India. They captured Delhi and besieged Lucknow, which was finally relieved by Sir Henry Havelock. At Cawnpur the British were massacred and their bodies cast into a well, which is now marked by a marble monument. The mutiny did not succeed because the Indian people did not rise in a body, and many of them loyally aided the British to put down the revolt. All the same, the mutiny was a dangerous crisis in Indian history, and after it had been suppressed the government of the country was transferred from the East India Company—which had originally been merely a society of traders—to the British Crown.

At the confluence of the Jamna with the Ganges stands **Allahabad**, with its Fort which was built by Akbar. It is now an important railway

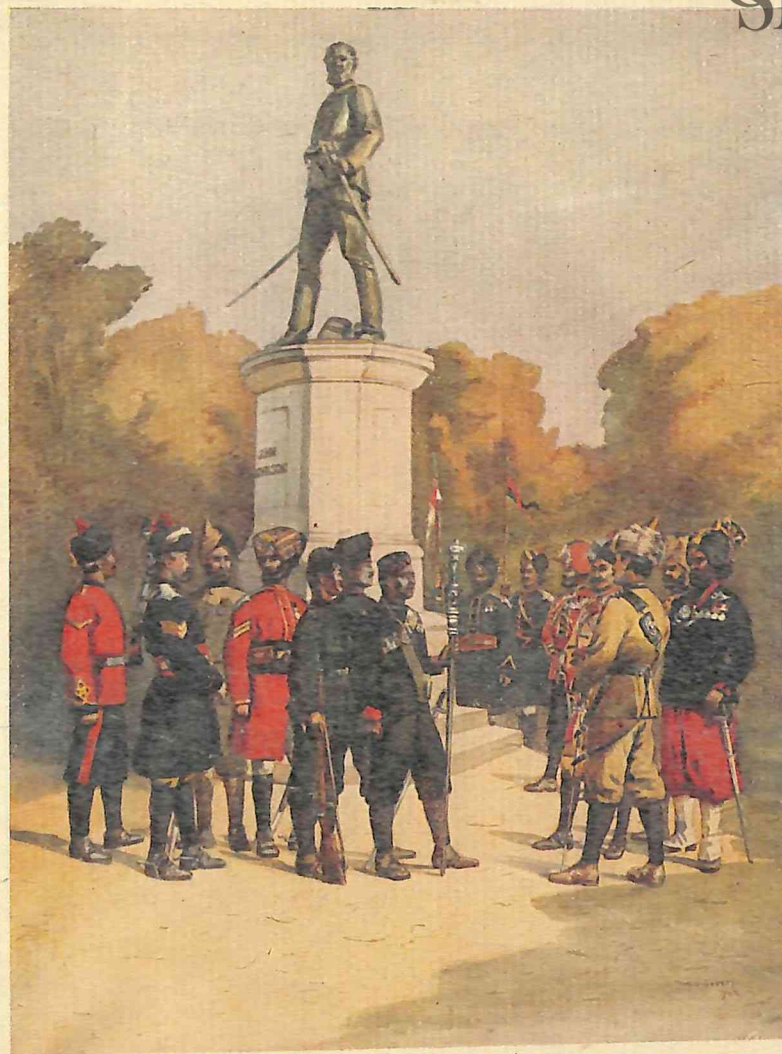




No. 51.

# A STREET IN DELHI.

Refer to pages 45 and 53. This shows a scene in one of the most densely populated parts of the city. Notice the booths and shops, the costumes of the people, the cart, the stuccoed house with its characteristic balcony, and the vivid colouring due to the brilliance of the sunlight.

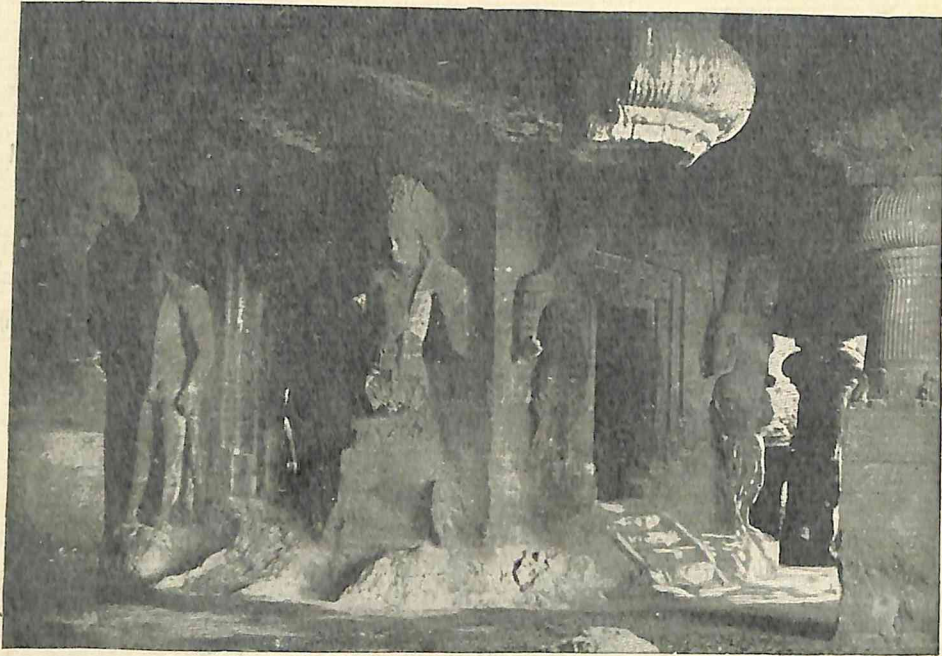


No. 52.

# SOLDIERS OF THE INDIAN ARMY.

Refer to page 64. Almost every race in India is represented in the Indian Army. The regiments are commanded by Englishmen, but there are also Indian officers called *risaldars* in the cavalry and *subaldars* in the infantry. The statue shown in the picture is of General John Nicholson, who distinguished himself in the Mutiny and commanded the forces which recaptured Delhi (see page 54).

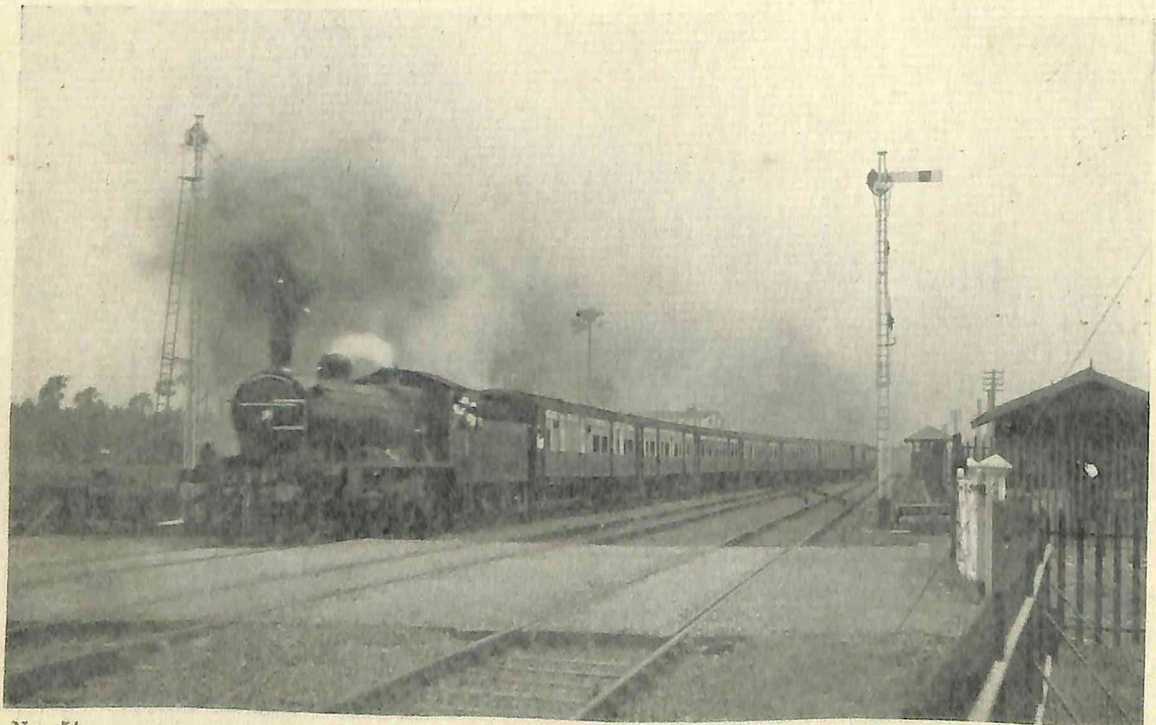




No. 53.

ELEPHANTA CAVES.

This cave-temple is probably more than a thousand years old. Amongst other figures it contains a large three-headed image of the Trinity whom the Hindus worship—Brahma the Creator, Vishnu the Preserver, and Siva the Destroyer. Refer to page 39.



No. 54.

BOMBAY-POONA EXPRESS RUNNING INTO BOMBAY.

(By permission of Somerset Playne, Esq., F.R.G.S.)

This shows an express train on the Great Indian Peninsula Railway. Notice the powerful locomotive necessary for hauling heavy trains up the steep gradients between Bombay and the top of the Deccan plateau. The main-line from Bombay to Madras passes through Poona. Refer to the map (No. 4) on page 5.



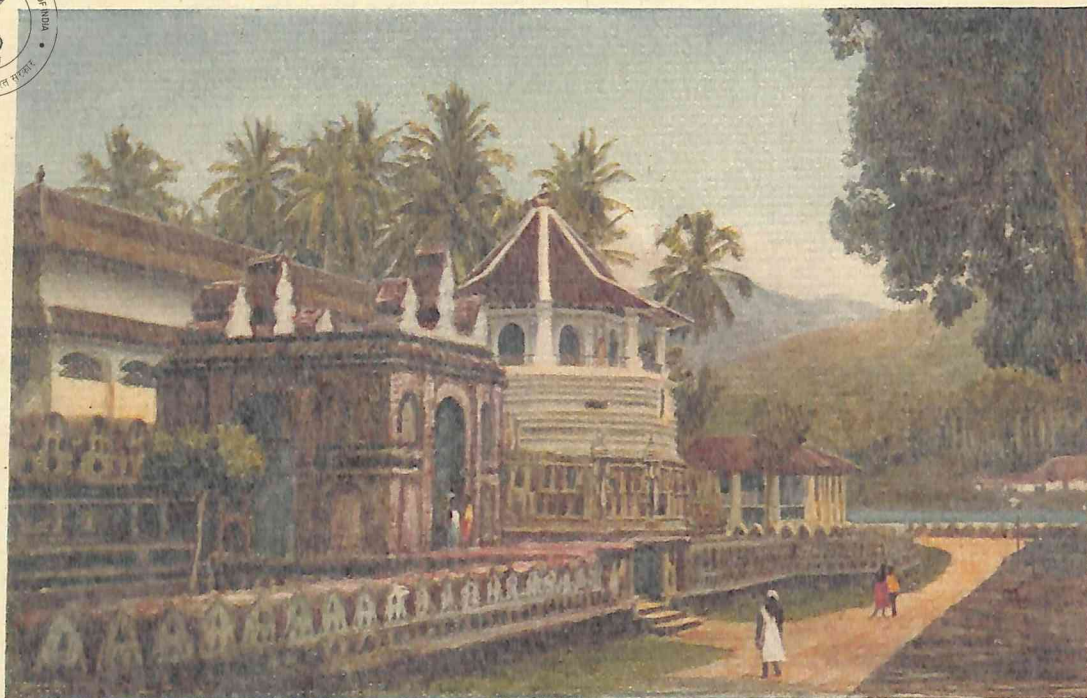
centre. Lower down the Ganges is **Benares**, the most sacred city of the Hindus. By the side of the river are temples with flights of steps or *ghats* leading down into the water. Here thousands of pilgrims from every part of India come to bathe in the sacred river or to get holy water from it (see picture 48). Here also the bodies of the dead are burnt and their ashes cast into the Ganges. At both Benares and Allahabad metal work and other handicrafts are carried on by skilful Indian artists, whose craft has been handed on from father to son through many generations.

On the Ganges, opposite the confluences of the Gandak and 140 miles east of Benares, is **Patna**. It is a very important collecting centre for the rice and opium which is grown in the surrounding region. The Ganges delta, known as the Sunderbunds (which means forest), is a flat, swampy, and unhealthy district, overgrown with forests of palm, bamboo, and creepers. The distributaries abound in enormous crocodiles, and the jungle is the haunt of tigers and other wild beasts. On the Hugli, one of the mouths of the Ganges, stands **Calcutta** which, until recently, was the capital of British India. It is in an unhealthy position, and the Hugli tends constantly to be silted up and has to be kept open by dredging. But in spite of these drawbacks Calcutta carries on a huge trade; it has large docks and is the terminus of many railways and canals. It exports the products of the Ganges Plain—jute, indigo, rice, opium, tea, and many other things. It also manufactures jute and cotton cloth and has sugar refineries, for these industries are helped by the presence of coal in the neighbourhood. The city consists of a European and an Indian quarter; near the former is a beautiful park called the “Maidan.” Calcutta also possesses a university, a cathedral, a mint, and numerous museums and churches, and is, in fact, next to London, the largest city in the British Empire. Unlike the ancient cities of the Ganges Plain, Calcutta owes its growth to the British. In 1696 Fort William—which still exists—was built on the site of Calcutta, and round it the modern city has sprung up.

#### (g) The Cities of Southern India.

**Bombay** is by far the most important seaport on the west side of India, and, next to Calcutta, is the largest town in the country. Recently it has surpassed its rival in trade. It owes its importance to the fact that it has a large and safe harbour on a coast which has hardly any good natural openings, and which, during the south-west monsoon, is swept by severe storms. The name Bombay itself is a corruption of the Portuguese *Bom Bahia*, which means “Good Bay,”





No. 55.

### THE TEMPLE OF THE SACRED TOOTH, KANDY.

The Temple stands on the shore of an artificial lake formed by letting water into the bottom of the valley in which Kandy stands. The relic, which is said to be Buddha's tooth, is about  $2\frac{1}{2}$  inches long, so that it is rather hard to believe that it belonged to a human being; in the same way the foot-shaped mark on the top of Adam's Peak (see picture 8, page 11) seems far too large to have been made by a man.



No. 56.

### A BURMESE PAGODA.

The Pagodas or Buddhist Temples of Burma are, as the picture shows, extremely graceful and beautiful buildings. They are often bell-shaped, and are surmounted by an ornament which is called a *ti* and resembles a rolled-up umbrella. The main pagoda is in the background, while in front numerous smaller shrines can be seen. To the left is a stone lion or leogryph. These animals represent the guardians of the temple, and therefore their images are usually found at the entrance to a Burmese pagoda.



and the map will help you to understand how suitable a name it is. The town of Bombay stands on a cluster of small islands, which in turn



BOMBAY AND ITS NEIGHBOURHOOD.

are backed by a larger island (Salsette), and these shelter the bay. For long, however, Bombay laboured under the disadvantage of being cut off from the rest of India by the wall of the Western Ghats; now, however, it is connected with the mainland by two lines of railway, one of which zig-zags up the face of the Western Ghats, over aerial viaducts, and through rock-cut tunnels, until it emerges on the plateau of the Deccan (refer to picture 54). With the help of these railways Bombay is able to export the cotton and oil-seeds of the interior. It was the American Civil War of 1861-65 that gave great impetus to Bombay's trade; for while the

cotton supplies of the United States were cut off, Bombay was the chief cotton centre in the world. The opening of the Suez Canal in 1869 also did much to encourage her trade. Six miles from Bombay lies the island of Elephanta, where there is a famous temple hewn out of the solid rock. Its roof is supported by huge pillars which were left standing when the temple was first hollowed out, and the walls are ornamented with elaborate carvings of gods and animals. There is a view of this temple on page 56.

On the coast south of Bombay is **Goa**, a Portuguese settlement and a relic of the possessions which Portugal acquired in India in the early sixteenth century. The city of Goa has many beautiful old buildings, including a cathedral which contains the tomb of St Francis Xavier, a Jesuit missionary, who laboured in the East and died in 1552 near Canton (refer to page 40). Portugal also possesses a small settlement at **Daman**, north of Bombay, and the Island of Diu off the Kathiawar Peninsula.

The chief port on the east side of Southern India is **Madras**. It has no natural harbour, and though an artificial one has now been constructed, great damage is often done to shipping by hurricanes which are frequent in May and October. The town owes its importance to the fertility of the district in which it stands and the products of which it exports; but its trade is considerably less than that of Calcutta or Bombay. The city grew up round Fort St George, which was erected by the East India Company merchants in 1640.



On the coast in the neighbourhood of Madras are several French possessions, chief of which is **Pondicherry**. During the eighteenth century there was a fierce struggle between the English and the French in India, and the former were finally victorious; but these small possessions still remain in the hands of the French.

It should be noticed that the three great cities founded by the British—**Calcutta**, **Bombay**, and **Madras**—are all ports; and that almost all the other towns in the possession of European powers are also on the sea coast; whereas the ancient Indian towns are almost without exception in the interior of the country. This is of course quite natural. The European invaders of India arrived by sea and founded their settlements on the coast; but the native Indian cities sprang up chiefly in the rich inland districts, especially in the Ganges Plain, which over and over again in the history of the country was overrun by invaders who came through the passes of the north-west.

The chief towns of the Deccan are **Poona**, a military centre with cotton and silk industries, on the railway route from Bombay to Madras; **Haidarabad**, capital of an important feudatory state and the fourth largest city in India; **Nagpur**, capital of the Central Provinces and nearly midway between Bombay and Calcutta on the direct railway route; and **Bangalore** in the State of Mysore, which stands in a healthy situation 3000 feet above the level of the sea, and in the neighbourhood of which gold is found.

## XI. CEYLON.

Owing to its hot and damp climate this island has a very luxuriant vegetation. One traveller speaks of the palms which “intermingle with the gorgeous mass of scarlet blossoms, the lovely lemon-yellow lettuce tree, the ever-graceful bamboo, the crimson blooms of the dark hibiscus, contrasting with the rich green of the areca, date, and palmyra palms, the huge waving leaves of the plantain, trees and shrubs of every description of tropical foliage.” On the terraced hill-sides are the tea plantations, while lower down are the paddy or rice fields which the patient Sinhalese farmer irrigates with the greatest care. The island is rich also in minerals; that which is at present of greatest commercial value is plumbago or graphite. It is exported in large quantities and is used in making pencils and lubricants, and for other purposes. On the north-west of Ceylon, in the Gulf of Manaar, pearl-fishing is carried on.

The capital of the island, **Colombo**, is a port on the west coast. It is a place of call for steamers, and exports the products of the interior. On the east coast is the harbour of **Trincomali**, but it is of less value





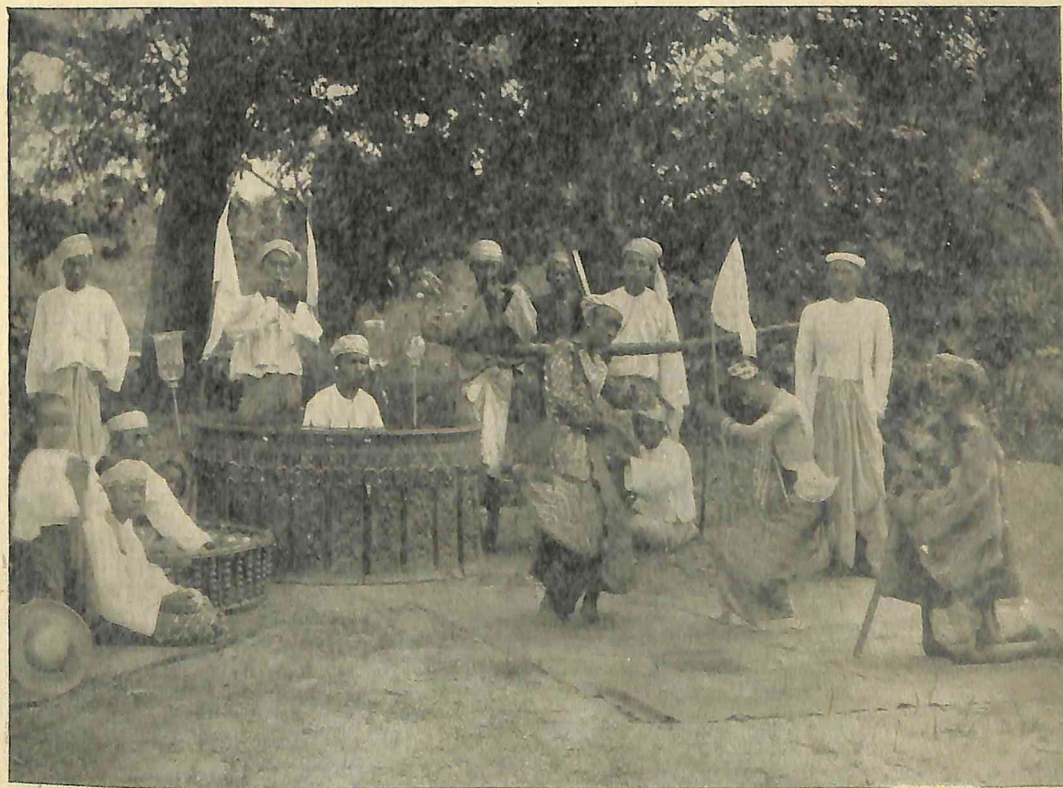
No. 57.

BURMESE MONKS AND SCHOOLBOYS.

(From "The Romantic East," by Walter Del Mar.)

Photo by W. W. Schumacher.

There are large numbers of monasteries all over Burma. A layman may become a monk at any time, and may return to his ordinary life when the period for which he has taken vows has elapsed. The monasteries are not only the dwelling-places of the monks but also the schools of the country.



No. 58.

BURMESE MUSICIANS AND DANCERS.

(From "The Romantic East," by Walter Del Mar.)

Photo by Watts & Steen.

An entertainment such as is illustrated in this picture is called a "pwe." Notice the instruments in the orchestra. The circular arrangements inside which a musician sits contain a series of small drums or gongs. Other performers are playing the big drum, wooden trumpets, and bamboo clappers. In the centre of the picture a woman can be seen dancing.





No. 59

#### TROOPS OF A FEUDATORY STATE.

The picture shows the ruler of a Feudatory State riding on a richly caparisoned elephant at the head of his army. Each band of his troops wears the dress of the particular part of his dominions from which it comes. Some wear chain mail and carry lances and swords; some are armed with firelocks; some have breastplates and maces or axes. In short almost every kind of weapon and equipment is to be seen.



No. 60.

#### H.H. THE MAHARAJA OF BIKANIR.

Bikanir is a state in Rajputana. His Highness Maharaja Sir Ganga Singh, G.C.I.E., G.C.S.I., became Bahadur or ruler of Bikanir in 1887 at the age of seven. He served with the British Army in China in 1901 and during the Great War; he rendered important services during the famine in India in 1899-1900; and he was present at the Coronation of Edward VII. and of George V. Refer to the end of page 64.



for trade because it is farther away from the productive parts of the island. In the interior is **Kandy**, once the capital of Ceylon, which is splendidly situated among the hills, more than 1700 feet above sea-level. It contains a famous Buddhist temple (see picture 55) which is visited by numerous pilgrims.

## XII. BURMA.

This country includes the basin of the Irawadi and its tributaries and the narrow and rugged valley of the Salwin, together with the coastal strips of Arakan and Tennasserim. It is in these districts that most of the population is found, for the rest of the country consists of impassible mountains and impenetrable jungles. The whole country gets a heavy rainfall, and the chief product of the river valleys is naturally rice. Much fish also is caught in the rivers. The chief product of the Burmese forests is teak, and rubber is also exported. The land is rich in minerals—iron, gold, copper, lead, and silver are all found, and there are deposits of coal, although up to the present these have been but little worked. Petroleum is found in the Irawadi valley, while jade and rubies are also valuable exports.

The chief port of Burma is **Rangoon**, on the delta of the Irawadi. It contains a wonderful temple called the Shoay Dagon, or Golden Pagoda, the spire of which is covered with gold-leaf. Inside the pagoda are many temples containing statues of Buddha exquisitely ornamented. On the Irawadi, some 400 miles north of Rangoon, is **Mandalay**, the chief inland town of Burma; it is connected with Rangoon by railway. It, too, has many beautiful temples and monasteries artistically designed and decorated with elaborate carvings. It contains the palace of the former kings of Burma, which is now used as a British fort.

## XIII. INDIAN ISLANDS.

The Indian Empire includes several groups of islands. Chief of them are the **Andamans**, which form a chain in the Bay of Bengal, south of the mouth of the Irawadi. The natives of this archipelago are very uncivilised; the group is also used as a convict settlement, and timber, cut down by the prisoners, is exported. The chief town is Port Blair. Farther south lies a smaller group—the **Nicobar Islands**—the chief product of which is coconuts. On the other side of India, off the Malabar coast of the Deccan, lie two more groups of islands. They are known as the **Laccadives** and **Maldives**, and are made of coral. The name "Laccadive" means "a hundred thousand islands"; but, as a matter of fact, the inhabited islands in both groups are few in number, although they are surrounded by many coral reefs. They are covered with coconut





groves, and their chief exports are coir and copra. The Maldivé Islands still retain their own native sultan, but he acknowledges the supremacy of the British Government by sending an embassy every year to Colombo.

#### XIV. THE INDIAN GOVERNMENT.

India forms part of the British Empire, and the King of England is also Emperor of India. The head of the government in the country itself is the **Governor-General** or **Viceroy**, who is a distinguished statesman appointed by the King-Emperor. He is assisted by two councils which are concerned largely with the making and carrying-out of laws, but there are also a number of local or provincial governments. The administration of justice, as well as the education, engineering, police and forest services are directed mainly by British officials; but they are assisted by large numbers of Indians, and there is a tendency to entrust to the latter more and more of the affairs of their own country. An important measure to this effect was recently passed by the British Parliament. Thus, although some Indians feel discontented with the present state of affairs, the vast mass of the people fully realise the advantages which are gained from British rule, and are loyal members of the British Empire. This was well shown during the recent war. Indian troops fought in France, Flanders, Gallipoli, Salonica, Palestine, Mesopotamia, Aden, Egypt, and East Africa, and everywhere in a manner worthy of their great traditions.

In addition to the territory which is governed by officials appointed by the British Government, there is a number of feudatory states, which still retain their own princes. Some of these rulers have been educated in England, but at their own courts they keep up the customs which have been in vogue for hundreds of years past. They maintain their own armies, brilliantly equipped in uniforms of various colours (refer to picture 59), and are surrounded by the nobles and chiefs who owe them allegiance. Thus they still possess a good deal of power, but they acknowledge the British Government as supreme, and if they misgovern their subjects they are liable to interference. At the court of the more important feudatory princes there is an official called the **British Resident**, who represents the British Government. But, as a rule, these princes rule wisely and are content to acknowledge the overlordship of Britain; during the Great War the rulers of the feudatory states and their peoples showed a splendid loyalty to the British cause; and it was very fitting that the Maharaja of Bikanir, one of these feudatory states, should be a representative of India at the Peace Conference of 1919.

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